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This guide for teaching composition in grades 4-6 (1) objectives for a curriculum in written composition, (2) sequence charts which relate subject content for each grade to basic understandings about composition, (3) illustrative learning experiences, and (4) units for teaching specific skills. The units for each grade are "Structuring a Composition," "Paragraph Development," "Informal Correspondence: Personal Letters," "Formal Correspondence: Business Letters," "Stories and Plays," "Poetry as a Writing Form," "Factual Reporting," "Definition," "Figurative Language," "The Dictionary," "History of the English Language," "Morphology," "Sentence Structure," and "Usage and Dialect." (Each of these units is also published as an individual bulletin for grades K-6. Price lists for the bulletins may be obtained from Prof. Mary Tingle, 312 Baldwin Hall, Univ. of Georgia, Athens, Ga. 30601.) (JS)

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A CURRICULUM IN WRITTEN COMPOSITION

4–6

A Guide for Teaching

ENGLISH CURRICULUM STUDY CENTER

UNIVERSITY OF GEORGIA, ATHENS, GEORGIA

TE000 976

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A CURRICULUM IN WRITTEN COMPOSITION

4 - 6

A Guide for Teaching

ENGLISH CURRICULUM STUDY CENTER

University of Georgia, Athens, Georgia

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The English Curriculum Study Center

The University of Georgia

Athens, Georgia

1968

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INTRODUCTION

The materials that have been developed for a curriculum in written composition in the primary and elementary school are comprised of five major volumes: Foundations for a Curriculum in Written Composition, K-6; A Curriculum in Written Composition, K-3; A Curriculum in Written Composition, 4-6; The Use of Literary Models in Improving Written Composition, K-6; and Research in Cognate Aspects of Written Composition.

The two volumes, A Curriculum in Written Composition, K-3 and A Curriculum in Written Composition, 4-6, are guides for teaching. Each contains a statement of objectives for a curriculum in written composition, a sequence chart which relates content for each grade to basic understandings about composition, illustrative experiences in composing, and graded materials for teaching specifics that are related to growth of competency in writing.

The organization of the materials in the guides relates to six major areas: (1) Sources of Content for Written Composition, (2) The Structure of Written Composition, (3) The Choice of Form for the Content of a Composition, (4) The Development of Vocabulary, (5) Language: Structure and Usage, (6) Conventions Observed in Writing.

The content of each of the guides is outlined in chart form, "Content of a Curriculum in Written Composition." Reading the chart, horizontally, one sees a continuum of learning experiences accompanying each concept and skill. Each continuum or unit extends from kindergarten through grade six. Teachers are urged to move back and forth on any one continuum to find the content suitable to the readiness level of the particular students.

Reading the chart vertically, one finds a listing of the varied concepts and skills developed to some extent at each grade level. The items within the listings are interrelated components of the complex composing process, therefore the order of listing is arbitrary. Within one grade level the order of arranging new experiences in composition or in examining the nature and conventions of language is determined by the writing requirements of the individual or of the group at any specific time.

The section entitled "Illustrative Experiences in Composing" suggests ways in which the ordinary experiences of children become the basis for composing.

The graded materials for teaching specifics that are related to composition contain objectives and examples of learning experiences which lead to competencies required as the student grows in maturity in writing. Sample learning experiences presented are illustrations only; they are beginning points for teachers' thinking and planning. Teachers arrange learning experiences consistent with the requirements of their own particular groups of children.

Opportunities for writing may be described in three ways: (1) ongoing, (2) occasional, and (3) unexpected rare opportunities. The ongoing opportunities are those which normally and regularly occur throughout the school day: writing problem situations and their solutions in arithmetic or science activities, writing a play in social studies, writing today's news or listing today's helpers. Occasional opportunities for writing are situations such as these: letters to a sick classmate, a story about Hallowe'en happenings or a trip to the fire station, invitations to a classroom science display. Unexpected rare opportunities for writing are those infrequent events which give zest and variety to life: a spiderweb sparkling with raindrops discovered just outside the window, the first snowfall of the season, the breakdown of the school bus. Stories, poems, plays, factual reports may stem from these.

An imaginative teacher finds or arranges innumerable opportune moments for children's writing. A practical teacher maintains variety in the types of writing normally required from children. The teacher who is both imaginative and practical interweaves varied types of writing with variety in life experiences. Teachers will find illustrative examples of varied writing experiences within the content of this book.

Opportunities for understanding the nature and structure of language are as plentiful as are the opportunities for variety in types of writing. Concepts about language may be developed in many ways, at opportune moments or in planned lessons. Language of literature and children's own language are entries. After reading "I Saw a Ship A-Sailing," a kindergarten teacher called attention to the word thee, an old word seldom used now, a word replaced by the word you. A second grade pupil reported to the teacher, "John talks funny. He said he 'might could go'." The teacher explained that John's language was not funny but that he was speaking a dialect that was somewhat unusual and that not all people say things the same way. These teachers recognized opportune moments for casually relating concepts about language to the normal events of the day. Either of the incidents can become an entry into more concentrated experiences with concepts about language.

Foundations for a Curriculum in Written Composition, K-6 and *Use of Literary Models for Improving Composition, K-6* provide materials that expand the guides and can profitably be used as reference materials with them. *Use of Literary Models for Improving Composition* groups material for Kindergarten through Grade Three and for Grades Four through Six and identifies specifics related to composition.

Research in Cognate Aspects of Written Composition is included with curriculum materials to provide information and also to emphasize the necessity for continuous research in composition. Needed research can be initiated by teachers who are directly in contact with the problems of teaching and of evaluation and who have very real motivations for finding solutions to these problems.

OBJECTIVES FOR A CURRICULUM IN WRITTEN COMPOSITION

Objectives for a curriculum in written composition define significant behaviors which an individual develops as he progresses through an educational program which interprets them in classroom activities.

As the learner proceeds from kindergarten through school, he

... draws upon himself and his world for the content of his writing

... uses in his writing a continuously expanding expressive vocabulary

... uses easily and flexibly, in his writing and revising, the structure of the English language

... perceives relationships among aspects of his experience and uses language to express and to shape the concept system by which he orders his experience and represents his world

... develops an understanding of language as a social institution, recognizes the role of written language in society, and accepts the responsibility of writing in keeping with this role

... writes effectively at levels of competency commensurate with his level of ability

... acquires habits of independence in the process of writing

... uses appropriate conventions associated with the writing act

SOURCES OF CONTENT FOR WRITTEN COMPOSITION	FOURTH GRADE
Understandings to be Developed	Related Content
Everything that a person has experienced, thought, or felt is a source of content for composition	Selective attention to sensory stimuli and appropriate response Verbalization of systems of interrelationships among sensory stimuli Management of experience through knowledge of interrelationships among objects and events Awareness of varying roles in relationships to others
Through reading, listening, and observing, a person can learn about and participate in experiences that he has not had and cannot have directly.	Use of conversations for a variety of purposes Recognition of the values of different reactions to experiences among persons Habitual use of reading as extension of experience Use of observation in variety of situations to change experience Examination of language in its results on experience
Through imagination a person can extend his experiences.	Combination of direct, vicarious, and imaginative experience to extend knowledge, to practice new roles, and to understand persons with different experiences Selection of imaginative experiences to predict future experiences Enjoyment of imaginative experiences for their own value to self

IN WRITTEN COMPOSITION

FIFTH GRADE	SIXTH GRADE
Related Content	Related Content
Distinction between sensory experience and the interpretation of it Comprehension of complex systems of sensory data and verbal descriptions of them Conscious predictions of experience through knowledge of interrelationships among objects and events Management of experiences in varying roles	Conscious separation of sensation from interpretation in appropriate situations Comprehension of systematic relationships as shown in direct experience Attention to relationships among objects and events Conscious use of varying roles
Verbalization of different purposes for conversations Exploration of differences and likenesses in reactions to experiences among persons Enrichment of experience through combination of reading and imaginative experience Generalizations formulated on the basis of observation Awareness of a variety of ways of using language to control experience	Conscious use of conversation to enrich the experiences of self and others Attention to varied meaning of experiences to different persons Habitual use of reading and imagination to extend experience Seeking generalizations from observation Management of language for varied purposes
Extensive use of direct, vicarious, and imaginative experience in combination for a variety of purposes Use of imagination to extend experience through proposing hypotheses to be tested by observation Enjoyment of imaginative experiences for their own value to self	Habitual use of direct, vicarious, and imaginative experience in combination Use of imaginative experience to extend knowledge by the scientific method Enjoyment of imaginative experiences for their own value to self

THE STRUCTURE OF WRITTEN COMPOSITION	FOURTH GRADE
Understandings to be Developed	Related Content
Each composition is prepared for a purpose and for an audience.	Letters: consideration of purpose as basis of planning
Different purposes may be combined in a single composition in support of a major purpose.	Compositions planned to be used for different purposes and with several audiences
The purpose and audience determine the choice of topic, language, and form.	Variation in form with same content, different purposes
A composition is a unit of expression which has an identifiable structure.	Organization in time sequence, in order of importance, logical of order, and psychological order Narration has beginning, middle, end Paragraphing with stated criteria
The choice and arrangement of appropriate language is the means by which the writer attains accuracy of expression, establishes the level of generalization, and varies the level of usage.	Accuracy as a criterion of improving composition Level of generalization varied by selection of subjects for composition Level of usage chosen as suitable to audience

IN WRITTEN COMPOSITION

FIFTH GRADE	SIXTH GRADE
Related Content	Related Content
Consideration of purpose and audience by class and individual Recognition of several purposes and several possible audiences Definition of purpose and prediction of audience reaction as basis for composition.	Habitual consideration of purpose and audience. Consideration of overall purpose in combination of several different purposes Organization planned to suit purpose and audience
Outline for trial organization of ideas Paragraphing related to outline Topic sentences to achieve unity	Paragraph development in each form of composition Methods of paragraph development
Accuracy consciously used by pupils as guide to choice of language Varied level of generalization encouraged in consideration by class Level of usage chosen as suitable to selected audience	Usage and dialect Differences in composition with purpose and audience, relationship of writer to authors Factual Reporting Formal outline for report of experiment Accuracy, level of generalization, and level of usage as criteria for improvement of composition Levels of usage suited to the prediction of audience reaction

THE CHOICE OF FORM FOR THE CONTENT OF A COMPOSITION	FOURTH GRADE
Understandings to be Developed	Related Content
There is a variety of forms in which content is commonly expressed.	Letters Conventional form of business letters Varied purposes for letters Stories and Plays Narration and a meaningful series of events having beginning, middle, and end Description in story Poetry Recognition of poetic forms Effectiveness of word choice Recognition of poetic qualities of content and expression Factual Reporting Use of reference materials Simple outline as plan for oral reporting Giving directions for process or construction Reporting experimentation and observation

IN WRITTEN COMPOSITION

FIFTH GRADE	SIXTH GRADE
Related Content	Related Content
Letters Occasion, forms, and conventional language in business letters	Letters Letters planned to evoke specific response Initiation of business letters
Stories and Plays Description to convey time, place and character Point of view of narrator Dialogue as description	Stories and Plays Description from varied points of view Narration from point of view of a character
Poetry Poetic images visualized Experiment with rhyme Experiment with modifying prose expression into poetry	Poetry Identification of poetic form Recognition of poetic passages in speech and prose
Factual Reporting Reporting experimentation Giving directions	Factual Reporting Biography and biographical fiction News reporting and opinions Formal report of experimentation

THE DEVELOPMENT OF VOCABULARY	FOURTH GRADE
Understandings to be Developed	Related Content
Meanings of words are derived from the context in which they are used.	Definition Classification of words in meaning classes
Words and combinations of words may symbolize varying degrees of generality.	Definition Classification of words in levels of abstraction - specific to general
Words and combinations of words may have figurative as well as literal meanings.	Definition Classification of words as figurative or literal in meaning Figurative language Metaphor Selection of figurative language for suitable purposes
The dictionary is one source of help in understanding word meaning.	Use of dictionary Skills in: alphabetizing, guide-words, selecting from multiple meanings, pronuncing guides, roots, derived and inflected forms Dictionaries for different purposes
Words have histories; knowing the history of a word enhances its meaning and increases the understanding of subtleties of its use.	History of English Language History of words in successive changes Acquisition from other languages

IN WRITTEN COMPOSITION

FIFTH GRADE	SIXTH GRADE
Related Content	Related Content
Definition Classification of words in meaning classes Personal and non-personal meanings	Definition Requisite parts of definition: term, genus, differentia Denotation and connotation Clues: structural, contextual, symbolic devices, place in sentence
Definition Classification of words in levels of abstraction	Definition Levels of abstraction: from specific to general from concrete to abstract
Definition Relation of literal definition to figurative meaning Figurative language Expression of same idea in literal and figurative language Metonymy in literature	Definition Literal and figurative Figurative language Function to overcome limitations of language Based on unusual associations of words and their referents Communication of feelings as well as concepts
Use of dictionary Meaning of archaic, colloquial, and formal definition	Use of dictionary Meaning of colloquial, slang, and standard language Multiple pronunciations related to dialects Explanatory material: abbreviations, pronunciation, symbols, examples
Dictionary - etymology	History of English Language Origin of words: proper nouns, roots and affixes, changes through history

LANGUAGE: STRUCTURE AND USAGE	FOURTH GRADE
Understandings to be Developed	Related Content
Language is symbolic. Written language is a graphic symbolization of the spoken language.	Usage and dialect: dramatization of situations using appropriate language for each Oral discussion or story-telling followed by written records of same material
Language is arbitrary; it is a system of set patterns in which relationships are indicated by various kinds of structural signals.	History of English Language Language as arbitrary system of symbolic sounds Sentence structure: pronouns, noun markers; complementation, modification Patterns: Noun-Verb, Noun-Verb-Complement Morphology: Varied plurals; function of adjectives and adverbs; inflection of adjectives, adverbs, verbs
Language is changing.	
Language has dialects.	Usage and dialect: consistency of language with character portrayed
Usage is determined by the acceptability of the chosen language to the group with which it is used.	Usage and dialect: criteria based on suitability to speaker, audience, content

IN WRITTEN COMPOSITION

FIFTH GRADE	SIXTH GRADE
Related Content	Related Content
Oral discussion or story-telling followed by written records of same material Choice of verbs and adverbs to convey tone and manner of speech Relation of punctuation and spelling to accurate symbolization of spoken language	Oral discussion or story-telling followed by written records of same material Choice of verbs and adverbs to convey tone and manner of speech Relation of punctuation and spelling to accurate symbolization of spoken language
Sentence structure Pattern: Noun-Verb-Complement Subordination: preposition, conjunction Coordination: conjunction Morphology: suffixes and derived words, derived words and word-form classes Inflection of adjectives and adverbs	Sentence structure Constructions: predication, modification, coordination, subordination, complementation Basic sentence Patterns: Noun-Verb, Noun-Verb-Complement, Noun^1-Verb-Noun^2, Noun-Verb-Predicate Noun, Noun-Verb-Predicate Adjective, Expletive-Verb-Noun Morphology: affixes, inflections, derived
History of English Language Relation of current language to historical antecedents	
Usage and dialect: regional and social class differences in dialect	Usage and dialect: differences in: phonology, morphology, vocabulary, syntax, sentence patterns History of English Language: differences--dialectal, regional, historical, personal
Usage and dialect: appropriateness in choice of language	

CONVENTIONS OBSERVED IN WRITING	FOURTH GRADE
Understandings to be Developed	Related Content
The conventions of written expression are practices agreed upon in language communities to facilitate communication through written language.	Responsibility to check all conventions and find help in using them consistently in written work.
Punctuation is a partial representation in written language of the stress, pitch, and juncture of the spoken language.	Period after numbers on a list or outline Comma in sentence with a quotation Quotation marks Exclamation point
Spelling is an arrangement of letters of the alphabet to represent the sounds of a word.	Spelling as needed in compositions Growing list of selected words studied from graded text Habit of checking all writing to correct spelling Ability to judge when and how to find correct spelling
Capital letters are placed according to conventional rules to signal importance.	Habit of checking all written work for placement of capitals Develop basis for using capitals in doubtful places

IN WRITTEN COMPOSITION

FIFTH GRADE	SIXTH GRADE
Related Content	Related Content
Responsibility to check all conventions and find help in using them consistently in written work	Habitual tendency to use all conventions consistently, to recognize questionable instances, to find authority for decisions.
Comma in parts of letter, in date, between city and state, to separate quotation from rest of sentence Apostrophe in possessives and contractions Punctuation and capitalization in direct quotations	Comma with words in a series Commas in sentences with more than one clause Proofread for all punctuation
Habit of checking spelling if doubt exists, knowledge of sources to find spelling Mastery of most usual words Personal list of difficult words	Responsibility for checking all spelling in written language
Responsibility for checking all uses of capitals Knowledge of sources of information about capitals	Responsibility for use of capitals in all written language

ILLUSTRATIVE EXPERIENCES IN COMPOSING RELATED TO CONTENT OF LANGUAGE CURRICULUM

Fourth Grade

Experience in Composing	Related Content
Situation: The school is sponsoring an evening of fun to which the community is invited. The fourth grade plans its part in the activities to involve a demonstration of tumbling and acrobatics and a sale of homemade candies.	Source of content: need in context of activity
Development: The class agrees to develop the wording to be used: on a poster; in a single sheet flyer to be distributed to the school pupils and in the community, and given to persons as they enter the school grounds on the evening of the performance; and a newspaper announcement. The teacher suggests that this is a new kind of writing for the class, more like advertising designed to persuade.	Means of distributing the message Purpose: to persuade and to communicate facts
A series of questions are suggested: 1. Who is likely to read it as distributed down town, as distributed at school, as seen on the poster in store windows, as read in the paper, as read by those who enter the school grounds?	Defining intended readers
2. What reasons would persuade each to want to come to our show?	Predicting reaction to message
3. How can the message be shaped to attract their attention, to get them to read, to show the facts, and to persuade them to come? to persuade all the readers at the different times and places they may see it?	Shaping the message as suitable to readers and purpose
The decision is reached that three different messages will be written: few words for illustrated posters to be placed in store windows; a news item more fully stated; and a brief message to be mimeographed for the flyer on colored paper. After examining several news	Form: news article, announcement to persuade attendance

items of this kind of announcement, the class discusses the order in which the content is arranged--and each pupil writes his first sentence to give all essential information as simply as possible, with later sentences giving details. Each pupil completes his news story, and the class selects parts from several to make the most effective persuasion.	Organization: order of importance of the information to serve the purpose; selection of parts to serve the purpose
From the decisions made concerning the news story, the wording for the posters is selected. Each pupil draws his illustration and the wording is used in common. The flyer is worded by a small group, drawing upon the poster wording to use in a larger type for the heading and upon the news article for the wording in the body of the information. A bright color is selected to attract attention.	Form: brief announcement made for visual appeal, for easy reading, and to persuade Form: combination of poster and news item for hand-out sheet
The class plans a way of evaluating the effectiveness of their writing to include: 1. The number of persons coming to the presentation and buying candy 2. A question asked of a number of persons who attend: "How did you know about our show?" Records kept are expected to indicate the effect of the practical purpose for writing.	Evaluation of message by successful achievement of its purpose

Fourth Grade

Experience in Composing	Related Content
Situation: A pupil reports that he visited his grandfather who is in the hospital. He was particularly impressed by the comment his grandfather made to him: "When I come home, you will have to take care of me." He noticed also that the nurses, orderlies, and helpers knew and liked his grandfather, and showed their friendliness to him as the grandson they had heard about.	Source of content: experience related by one pupil; recall of similar situations
Development: Another pupil asked "What will you do to take care of him?" The discussion that followed included the feeling of being sick and weak and not able to get out of bed to do things for oneself or even to get what one wants. Some children described the kindness of a sister, mother, or neighbor to stay with them when they were sick and described how much it helped them to feel better.	Recognition of an especially important personal need met by the thoughtfulness of others
The teacher suggested that each might write about how it feels to be sick, what others can do to help, what tastes good to eat or drink, what kind of person makes one feel better, what you might want to have near you while in the bed sick. The pupil whose grandfather is sick chooses to write about how he plans to take care of his grandfather. Another child wishes to write her own experience during a long illness.	Intended audience: self, a way of clarifying feelings Source of content: analysis of the feeling component of experience as basis for writing
As they write, the teacher is available for conference about content, plan, word choice, spelling, and other conventions of writing. She is able to help with order of presentation and with paragraphing and writes words on the board as spelling is asked. As writing is complete, the pupils read their composition to the class. The teacher takes the opportunity to respond to both the meaning and the feelings and the pupils follow her lead. She recalls, after all are read, particular words or passages that represent feelings well and mentions them for purpose of sharing the feeling.	Choice of words, organization, conventions, order of presentation

Fourth Grade

Experience in Composing	Related Content
Situation: The class has been reading biography and fictional biography, and the geography and history of the community has been studied. Many sites in the area are recognizable as dating back 100 or more years. It is suggested that each pupil write an imaginative story of the return to the local scene of a person who was a young man of the community 100 years ago. The story may be told as to a newspaper reporter in the town, to his own father or friend as he returns to his own century, or it may be told from the viewpoint of another person observing him and accompanying him around the community.	Source of content: experience and imagination Purpose: to amuse with a narrative Form: Narration: choice of character, viewpoint of writer, time and place
Development: Some pupils start writing immediately, while others go to reference shelf for information about the community and even the name of residents 100 years ago. Some choose to visit one of the century-old houses first. The teacher moves around the room to help pupils who are writing and to discuss plans with those who are not ready to write. She continues to help for the several days during which some students work on their stories. Others who finish read their stories with her, find some ways to improve them, and make a final copy.	Collect material, clarify plan with information Organization: planning and reference work as preparation Organization: planning sequence of events, word choice, paragraphing, sentence structure, and the conventions Audience: class
As most stories are complete, a day is selected for sharing them with the class. When all the stories are read, the teacher asks what they heard that was particularly enjoyable. As pupils mention incidents in a story, the writer often tells why he chose to use the particular incident.	

ILLUSTRATIVE EXPERIENCES IN COMPOSING RELATED TO CONTENT OF LANGUAGE CURRICULUM

Fifth Grade

Experience in Composing	Related Content
Situation: The class has read many stories with the chief character drawn as a hero, tales especially from American and English folk origins. They decide to write similar stories and begin to talk about the central characters they plan to portray.	Purpose: own enjoyment and to entertain class Source of content: historical settings and imagination Readers: self and selected others
Development: The teacher suggests that there are certain historical places and periods which seem more suitable than others as settings of heroic tales and wonders if this accounts for the number and popularity of stories of the pioneer days in the West. A pupil who likes science fiction proposes that these stories are heroic tales about pioneers of the future. A generalization emerges that heroic exploits told in fiction and folk tales are based on real happenings in periods of history when men risk personal danger in order to bring the natural environment under control for human uses. Cited as examples are tales based on the conquest of the sea, the forests, the open country of the West, mineral deposits, the air, and now space beyond the air. The class agrees to regular times to work on their stories in school and a time at which they should be completed.	Form: Narrative--selection of time and place; development of character Narrative: the nature of the hero in history
As children proceed with writing, needs arise for using specialized vocabulary suitable to the setting and the character. The teacher helps with vocabulary and dialect as requested and keeps a record of words for consideration with the class at a later time. For example, a pupil asks about the word bonanza, a word used in connection with mining; another uses boon, a word from an earlier period of	Vocabulary: special words belonging to historical period; specialized vocabulary of occupations History of language: derivation

history. Recognizing the similar derivation of the two words, the teacher suggests the use of the dictionary and pupils find represented in the history of these two words six different languages.

As the character of a hero develops, pupils find that they are using long descriptive passages to describe the character. After several requests for help in making these more interesting, the teacher discusses with the class various ways of letting the reader know what kind of person the hero is. Discussion develops the idea that human character is shown in action and in words, and that, therefore, careful construction of incidents using conversation and action is an effective means of describing a character.

Pupils show a variety of attitudes about the stories they have authored. During the time they are developing the story, some are ready to tell the story to others a bit at a time, while others are secretive. Some ask for help at home and at school, others jealously guard against using creative ideas from anyone else. When stories are complete, some are anxious to volunteer first to read to the class, others seem to wish they would not be asked. The first few pupils to read seem to encourage other pupils, and each enjoys his own story and the others. Many pupils seek other listeners for several days. Those who wish to make a final copy to place on the reading table or to keep are helped by the teacher to edit, proof, and complete it.

Process of composing: need for variety

Narration: variety of ways to present meaning--construction of incidents typical of narrative

Audience: class and others

Editing with teacher as collaborator

Fifth Grade

Experience in Composing

Situation: In science activities, pupils have participated in many methods of observation and experiment. The teacher refers to some of these methods to call attention to the fact that while we think we know about the regularities in the world about us, we always are using our sense impressions to guess, or conclude what they are. This process of concluding or guessing is clearer when we use only one sense. Pupils probably have heard all the sounds that occur in this location many times and they gain much knowledge through sense of hearing.

Development: Pupils are asked to close their eyes and listen, raising a hand when they hear a sound for which they can recognize a source. One pupil reports that the first grade is playing on the school grounds. He is asked how he guessed it was the first grade. Is the teacher there? Are there other children? What are they playing? Are all first graders playing together? His answers reinforce the need to separate description of the sense impression and inferences drawn from the data. Another pupil is asked simply to describe the noise he heard. He attempts to describe the sound of a truck pulling up a hill from a stop at the service station. The descriptive terms are difficult to find, and the class helps him. Other sounds are described and inferences drawn: footsteps in the hall recognized as the custodian by the sound of his cart accompanying the footsteps; the telephone ringing down the hall--the only bell of the sort in the building; the sound of a hammer some distance away, not sufficient evidence to locate nor to infer the purposes served; a car door slams on the street, but there is disagreement as to the direction of the sound; two voices exchange comments in the

Related Content

Purpose: to record clearly sensory experience separate from inferences--a means of understanding the scientific method as represented in language use

Source of content: sensory data from hearing

Reader: self

hall, but no words are clear, and none has the basis for describing the speakers--not even by age or sex. The teacher suggests that the listening continue for several minutes with each pupil writing down what he hears as clearly as he can, but making no guesses or inferences from the sense impression. These notes will be filed until later in the day when there will be another listening period for note-taking, and each will write what inferences he can make from both sets of notes.

As the notes are completed, much discussion centers in the lack of words that describe accurately the sounds heard; most sounds are interpreted as soon as heard, as sounding like something known. Thus the inferences are immediately made because of limitations of words. We are likely to say: "This sounds like a truck" or "This is a truck," thus using a figure of speech but also making an inference because we can find no suitable word.

Vocabulary: search for accurate descriptive terms

Figurative language substitutes for lack of accurate term, but leads to unjustified inferences

The teacher suggests that they listen one more period of a few moments and then write what they have heard--not like a scientist but like a poet might do.

Form: same content used in different forms; different points of view

Fifth Grade

Experience in Composing	Related Content
Situation: The class has enjoyed a "game", used in several content areas as suitable, in which teams compete in skill areas where drill is necessary. From time to time they have agreed on rules of the game but have not felt it necessary to write them. A similar situation occurs in many games they play on the play ground with compromises made because of variations in space or number of team members.	Form: factual material written as directions to guide action Purpose: to be used by writers and classmates as agreements to be followed Reader: players in the game
Development: After occasions of being asked to make official decisions during play, the teacher suggests that the rules of games should be set by written descriptions which the official simply interprets and applies. Pupils find descriptions of games in reference books. It is apparent to them that there are standard parts of the game descriptions, which constitute an outline defining what is needed to inform players and officials. In class discussion, they agree on a general outline, and each pupil selects a game or contest which he wishes to describe. Conferences with each other, with older children in the school, with the physical education teacher, and reference books are used as resources.	Source of content: their experience with a game they developed and with others as they modify them from standard rules Reference materials: game descriptions Organization: Outline given in references modified to suit game Source of content: Own experience and that of more experienced players
When the descriptions are complete, they are exchanged with other pupils for their questions and suggested improvements. They decide that the rules should be clear enough to be understood by children who do not know the game described. The fourth grade is invited to visit the room, and several indoor games are chosen to be taught to the visitors. Corrections are made in the description as indicated by the younger children's questions and confusions.	Readers: members of class Readers: potential players not familiar with game Revision: on basis of practical application by readers
The descriptions are filed for reference.	

ILLUSTRATIVE EXPERIENCES IN COMPOSING
RELATED TO CONTENT OF LANGUAGE CURRICULUM

Sixth Grade

Experience in Composing	Related Content
Situation: Election of class officers.	Purpose: to persuade Audience: class
Development: Through discussion the responsibilities of each class office are determined. Characteristics needed in persons holding each office are discussed and listed on the board. Children are asked to nominate one or more person for class offices. The written nomination includes a character description of the nominee stating the qualifications which make this person a good choice. The character descriptions become "campaign" material as they are posted for all class members to read.	Definition: president, vice-president, etc. Description and Narration: character presented Morphology: derived words: nomination, nominee

Sixth Grade

Experience in Composing

Situation: For several days Tall Tales have been read aloud by the teacher, or by various children. "The Cremation of Sam McGee," by Robert Service, is an example.

Development: Children are asked to write a Tall Tale. These will be typed, stapled into book form, and placed on the shelf for fall reading. Thought starters are given:

(a) A mystery drug dropped into water caused fleas to grow as large as dogs and dogs to become as small as fleas.
(b) A stranger came to our town. Everyone visited by the stranger became rich.
(c) Because of a chemical change in the atmosphere, the seas became land, and the land became water.

Follow-up: Because these stories are to be placed on the Reading Shelf, children are encouraged to proof-read and edit them. Specific suggestions are given for the editing: Check spelling, punctuation, and capitalization; check for variety in sentence patterns; check vocabulary to see whether picture-giving words or phrases are used.

Related Content

Source of content: imagination
Purpose: to entertain
Readers: classmates and others

Modification: superlative of modifiers

Figurative language: exaggeration

Sixth Grade

Experience in Composing

Situation: In the last few days the students have been studying clouds. They have seen films of cirrus, cumulus, stratus, and nimbus clouds. Explanation has been given that, frequently, weather conditions cause combinations of these types of clouds and that modified names are given at such times: cirro-stratus, cirro-nimbus, strato-cumulus, etc. Students have found the history of the name words cirrus, etc.

Development: Children go outside the building to observe clouds. They note the characteristics of the clouds observed, the approximate percentage of the sky that is covered by clouds, etc.

Upon returning to the classroom the teacher asks the children to write a description of the clouds observed, identifying the characteristics that are important in the classification of clouds. From the observed characteristics the children are asked to identify the class (es) to which these clouds belong.

Follow-up:

(a) Immediate:

Weather conditions during the rest of the day are noted.

(b) Soon:

Reports on observation of clouds and on the weather conditions following are used when interviewing a person from the weather bureau: Does this kind of weather always follow this kind of cloud? Can we predict weather from identifying clouds?

Related Content

Use of dictionary: lexical meaning of cloud names

Morphology: change in form as hyphenated words are made

History of language: Where did these names come from?

Factual reporting

Literal/figurative language to describe

THE STRUCTURE OF WRITTEN COMPOSITION

STRUCTURING A COMPOSITION

Fourth Grade

EXPECTED READINESS

The child

... has a wide variety of interests through which he expands his experiences and understandings.

... recognizes the relationship between choice of content and purpose and audience.

... recognizes a relationship between nature of content and choice of form.

OBJECTIVES

The child will

... consider the purpose of writing and the audience in selection of form and organization.

... limit a general topic by choosing a specific subject.

... develop the ability to describe.

... develop the ability to persuade.

... use comparison and contrast.

... use introduction, body, and conclusion of composition.

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

1. To consider the purpose of writing and the audience in selection of form and organization.

Example: A social studies unit on American colonial life is nearing completion, and the class wishes to share some of their learning with others: a pupil who has been absent for several weeks during the study, their parents, other pupils through the school library, and a second grade group who like to have members of the class to tell them stories.

Consideration of these audiences and the purposes to be served for each produces a plan:

(1) Audience: parents

Purpose: to report class activity; to show composition of each individual pupil

Form: summary report of information and the activity of the unit of work; selected report written by their own child as part of unit

Organization: sections of summary: What We Learned, What We Made, What We Wrote, A Report I Wrote.

(2) Audience: pupils who find our book in the library

Purpose: to inform, to help them study the subject

Form: factual reports, stories and songs, bibliography

Organization: a bright cover, illustrations, table of contents, reports in one section in order according to topic, stories and songs.

(3) Audience: second grade

Purpose: to entertain and to inform

Form: stories that were told by the colonists, stories that pupils composed to be similar to them, illustrations with displays of dolls dressed in colonial style.

Organization: order of stories to maintain interest.

(4) Audience: the pupil who is absent

Purpose: to entertain and to inform

Form: summary report of information and the activity of the unit of work; selected reports written by different pupils to give him as much information as possible; letter to accompany report.

Organization: a bright cover, illustrations, reports grouped by topic.

Example: The pupils have been caring for two white rats for several weeks and have followed a different feeding schedule for each of them. They have made a record of the activity of each one as his feeding time comes near. This record has been made on a chart each day, and they have decided to write up what they have discovered.

Discussion of the purpose of this composition results in the decision that it is chiefly for a record of discovery for their own use to draw some conclusions about behavior related to regular eating schedules. However, some pupils express their desire to invite someone to see their mice, their chart, and the report. They decide to invite a science teacher to be their audience and to help them plan another experiment with the mice.

The form chosen is a factual report, a report of an experiment. The teacher leads the class in making a formal outline as the basis of the report, discussing the logical basis of its order: Questions, Observations, Results, Conclusion.

2. To limit a general topic by choosing a specific subject.

Example: The teacher has noticed that pupils often use very general topics as the subject of compositions. She recalls, with the class, experience with words that name broad classes and words that name specific items which can be grouped under class names. She gives as examples:

toys: dolls, skates, games, balls, puzzles,

balls: baseball, basketball, football

She suggests that the name given to a composition may be general, such as: A Pet, or it may be made more specific, such as: The First Pet I Ever Had, My Favorite Dog, A Fish As A Pet. The class is able to continue the list, and pupils recognize that the more specific subject gives the reader more information to predict what is included in the composition. It is suggested that this is one use of a title or subject--to persuade a person to read the composition, the story, or the news article.

Several general topics are listed, and pupils suggest ways to make them more specific subjects for a composition:

My Favorite Place

The Picnic

A Trip

My Favorite TV Program

Games I Like to Play

A Story

3. To develop the ability to describe.

Example: Pupils are asked to study a picture and write a description of what they see. Volunteers read their papers to the class, and others supplement these with added description. The teacher comments on the completeness of their combined efforts but wonders if a complete description is necessarily the most effective way of telling someone who cannot see the picture what its message is. She asks each pupil to look again at the picture and decide what is the most important meaning it has. As suggestions are made, she lists them briefly on the board, and children discuss their preference. They arrive at a "theme" the picture portrays, and together they add details to support their choice of theme. It seems to them that detailed descriptions are not necessary, once the meaning has been stated and supported.

Example: In a story, the teacher calls attention to a description of a person, and the class studies how the author achieved the result. It seems to the pupils that the passage begins with a general sentence that helps the reader to "know" the character immediately. They practice writing descriptions of some member of the class and trying out the effectiveness by letting other members guess who is described. The teacher comments on effective descriptions and encourages discussion.

4. To develop the ability to persuade.

Example: In making a display, the class needs to build a frame to represent an entrance to a house. They need a saw, a hammer, and some nails. They suggest that the industrial arts teacher may be willing to let them borrow the tools. The teacher suggests that they compose a letter requesting permission. They plan to state their request, to describe what they plan to do with the tools, and to state how they will take care of them and guard against dangers to children. As they talk, the teacher outlines the letter on the board, and each pupil composes a letter. Each reads his letter to a small group who chooses the most persuasive. The several chosen are read to the class, and one is selected. The teacher helps the writer to proof-read it, he makes a final copy, and it is delivered to the intended reader.

5. To use comparison and contrast.

Example: In studying about the early colonies, many fictional and real stories about children are read by pupils. They frequently comment on the differences in the life of the colonists and life today. The teacher suggests that they list these differences together on the board. She then lists as they contribute statements showing likenesses. Each pupil writes a composition showing the likenesses and differences. Several pupils return to school wishing to write about likenesses of the life at the time of their parents' childhood and life today.

Example: As the seasons change, children change their play activity. Some express preference for the kind of fun they have in winter, but they are challenged by others. The teacher initiates conversation about the reasons for preferences, and they decide to compare and contrast the activities and their reasons for preferring some over others.

6. To use introduction, body, and conclusion of a composition.

Example: Pupils have frequent opportunities to relate orally to the class any incident they believe would be interesting. On occasion, they concentrate on funny incidents or jokes. Some children seem to have difficulty in building to the "punch line" and spoil the fun of the joke. On such an occasion, the teacher introduces the form of the story which builds interest to a high point and then drops to the conclusion.

Children find several stories that illustrate this plan of a story and read them to the class. The teacher locates the point where the introduction of the situation ends and the body of the story begins, and the point of high interest leading rapidly into the conclusion. Pupils seek for brief jokes or anecdotes that follow this pattern. They draw the generalization that this is a way of keeping the reader or audience interested.

Example: Many pupils have read books from the library independently, and wish to recommend those they like to other pupils. They develop a way of writing a description of a book that has as its purpose to persuade other pupils to read the book. In planning how to write the review, they decide that this brief description should have: an introductory part that tells what the story is about; a body or main part that includes mention of the chief characters, the setting, and the high point of interest; and a conclusion that will leave the reader wondering how the story ends. They recognize that the parts of their review parallel the parts of the book but reserve the ending so that the person who reads the review will want to read the book itself.

STRUCTURING A COMPOSITION

Fifth Grade

EXPECTED READINESS

The child

... identifies the purpose for writing and the characteristics of the audience for each composition.

... limits the general topic to a specific subject.

... uses description effectively.

... develops persuasion effectively.

... uses effective introduction, development, and conclusion of composition.

OBJECTIVES

The child will

... identify the purpose for writing and the characteristics of the audience for each composition.

... select a subject and indicate the content of the composition through the phrasing of the subject.

... use introduction, body, and conclusion to develop unity in structure of the composition.

... write simple expository material.

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

1. To identify the purpose for writing and the characteristics of the audience for each composition.

Example: To emphasize the effect on the composition of the characteristics of the audience, the teacher initiates a discussion of several potential audiences and their characteristics. Pupils are asked to think of the oldest person they talk to; the busiest, with the least time to listen; the youngest, with the smallest vocabulary and the shortest span of attention; the person who knows very little about the family or about the school; the person who knows most about you; the person who listens to you the best. Pupils are asked to pick one person who could be the audience and write all the words or phrases that describe what he is like as a listener. As they finish, she lists on the board contributions as they are volunteered, listing them in at least two lists representing characteristics that make it easy to talk to them or hard to talk to them.

Each pupil chooses a person described as easy to talk to and another hard to talk to. He writes each of them a letter for the purpose of amusing them.

When the letters are read to the class, each writer explains why he chose different ways of writing.

Example: The children become habituated to specifying an audience and a purpose for writing. They sometimes are composing chiefly as a record for themselves, to share with each other, or to restate information for the purpose of understanding or recalling it better. Especially on such occasions, they will profit by deciding what the purpose is and who the audience is. The teacher recognizes that a rather usual purpose of an adult for writing is to communicate to himself as audience--but to himself as he is at a later time. Pupils are asked to name purposes for which they might need to record for themselves to read later. As these are listed, the pupil is asked "How will you be different then?" Typical examples are: a list of things to buy or do, to recall what I did, where I went, where I put things away.

2. To select a subject and indicate the content of the composition through the phrasing of the subject.

Example: Imaginative accounts are being written by pupils to show different ways of life at different places and times. A subject used is stated Life in the City. In attempting to improve the composition, suggestions make the subject more specific:

The Year I Lived in Cleveland,

A Cold Winter In Cleveland,

Nobody Knows You In The City.

The discussion recognizes that each of these predicts the content of the composition for the reader in more specific meaning than the original subject.

3. To use introduction, body, and conclusion to develop unity in the structure of the composition.

Example: Pupils have chosen to write biographical sketches of historic characters, as though the writer had been present at some incident in the life of the person. For example, one student imagines that he was present at the inauguration of Franklin Roosevelt.

The plans for writing include a discussion of the use of the introduction, the body, and the conclusion. It is clear that the introduction could clarify for the reader the time, the place, and the chief character of the composition. The body would include the description of the occasion, building up in interest, and the conclusion could include some summary statement predictive of the important events during the presidency of Roosevelt.

Other pupils prefer to include less identifying and explanatory material in the introduction, building up interest by telling the story before identifying the character in a quick conclusion. This plan might especially fit a humorous anecdote such as is told of Abraham Lincoln.

4. To write simple expository material.

Example: The teacher initiates the process of composing directions by asking the class to watch carefully while she folds paper and cuts a five pointed star. When she has finished, she asks the pupils to write the directions for the process. A few try to do so, and ask for another demonstration. As they attempt to write, they realize that directions are easier to follow if each step is numbered. They have difficulty in describing the method of folding the paper, but they discover that they could draw a diagram of the successive folds. When someone has an adequate set of directions, the class analyzes what the requirements are for writing useful directions: designating the purpose, descirbing the materials needed, numbering the steps, giving exactly what angle each fold makes and the angle of the two cuts. Several pupils read their directions while another tries to follow.

Other similar directions are written and tested in use.

Example: Each pupil writes the directions for leaving the school and reading his home. Other pupils who are familiar with the route judge the adequacy of the directions.

STRUCTURING A COMPOSITION

Sixth Grade

EXPECTED READINESS

The child

... identifies characteristics of the audience and defines purpose for writing.

... selects appropriate topics for compositions.

... organizes a composition in major parts and establishes relationships among them.

... uses description, exposition, narration, and persuasion.

OBJECTIVES

The child will

... identify the purpose for writing and the characteristics of the audience for each composition.

... choose appropriate form for the content.

... organize the parts of a composition into a unified whole.

... establish and maintain a point of view in writing.

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

1. To identify purpose for writing and the characteristics of the audience for each composition.

Example: Pupils have for several years examined their purpose for writing as a composition is planned. The teacher recognizes that they have experience with a variety of specific purposes and have developed a vocabulary of general purposes. She suggests that each pupil list as many purposes for writing as he can and bring the list to class the following day. Children compare lists as they make them and look at a variety of written materials for suggestions. Most of them take their files of compositions and recall the purposes for which they were planned or used. As the discussion begins, some pupils differentiate general purposes and begin to group under these the specific purposes proposed. In recording these on the board, the teacher assigns one pupil to a section of the board to record those which belong to a group with a general purpose as a class name.

The general purposes that emerge include: to inform, to explain, to amuse or entertain, to interest or to arouse interest, to persuade or request, to report, to record, to share feelings or to arouse feelings. Pupils also propose such specific purposes as to preserve a thought, to enjoy a feeling, to express a feeling. They recognize that they have named some purposes which do not necessarily require an audience or a reader except the writer himself. They insist, however, that many of the purposes may be served for the writer himself as the audience. The teacher leads them to speculate that writing for self is perhaps increasing as they grow into mature writers and students. It is decided that the next day's discussion will focus on definition of the variety of audiences. A suggestion is that they start thinking about self as an audience and list all the kinds of hearers and readers for whom they might wish to write.

As the discussion begins, a pupil reports that he wants to become a writer of science fiction and write for a great many people he has never seen and never will know. He wonders how he can predict their reactions. The discussion develops ideas about ways of getting reactions from a wide audience, like the polls that show effects of TV programs or popularity of political candidates. Investigation is suggested into ways in which newspapers and magazines judge audience reaction, and a group volunteer to investigate.

The teacher calls attention to the need to find some generalizations that will allow summary statements about the wide variety of audiences, ranging from self to a large number of unknown persons. With these two extremes in mind, there is developed a general pattern of defining the audience or intended reader in terms of how far away he is from the self: how different are the experiences he has had from those of the writer; how different he is in age, knowledge, attitudes, opinions; how well-acquainted are the writer and the intended reader. A summary statement indicates that the writer can predict audience reaction more accurately for those persons more like himself or actually known to him.

2. To choose appropriate form for the content.

Example: The class has been studying the climate of various parts of the country and the effect climate seems to have on the life and culture of the people. Several writing projects have been involved, and a number of factual reports have combined information from several reference sources. Pupils have enjoyed finding fiction and fictional biography which show the effects of varied climates on the style of life of the population and have reported to the class or read excerpts.

The teacher asks what sort of writing they might plan as a summary of this study. In discussing possible plans, a number of forms are considered and it is decided to make an effort to represent a wide variety of forms in the plans. Some choose to write letters, choosing as content an imaginary character in a specific climate area who writes to a friend inviting him to visit, describing the recreational activities, and showing their dependence on the climate and weather.

As individuals choose a form to use, they are listed and the kind of content suitable to the form of writing is discussed. As the listing is finished, the teacher calls attention to the order in which they considered form and suggests that, in most instances, the writer has a message he wishes to write and chooses his form as suitable to the content. Pupils believe that their choices were made in both directions, since some chose a form and then selected the content, and some chose the content and then selected a form.

The list of forms of writing is put on a chart as a permanent record for later use in similar situations.

3. To organize the parts of a composition into a unified whole.

Example: As pupils complete a factual report, the teacher reads each paper with the writer to consider with him ways of improving it for its purpose. She finds a variety of difficulty with the aspects which make for unity. She helps several pupils to improve the unity of their presentation: by looking at the introduction for ways of stating the general theme of the report in advance; by consideration of the order of presentation of the several points through making a simple outline of his points; by inserting transitional elements between parts.

A general discussion includes the ways of attaining unity and the improvement of meaning and clarity when unity is achieved.

4. To establish and maintain a point of view in writing.

Example: Pupils have chosen to write stories concerning some character which each has described in a previous composition. As they begin their narratives, the teacher encourages them to re-read their descriptions to judge if they have presented the character from several points of view or from a single one. They ask such questions as: Could any one person have known all the various facts included? Is it likely that he would describe himself this way? Are there varied opinions about him that represent several persons' view of the character?

The discussion is extended by examination of several novels or stories to determine the point of view the author takes. The pupils discover a wide variety of points of view occurring in their samples. Each one specifies the point of view he thinks most useful for the story he is composing.

Example: The school newspaper includes contributions from each class, with an opportunity for them to express opinions about school affairs in an editorial column or in a letter. There has been some discussion of the areas of the playground used by different classes. The sixth graders have been aware of the dangers to smaller children who play individually too close to their ball games. After much discussion, they have worked out a plan which would confine smaller children to a safe area. The plan makes it necessary for the sixth grade to limit its activity and for other groups to give up some privileges also.

The principal has understood the proposal and agreed to its advantages, but he wishes the class to make the plan known to the other classes and their teachers. The class decides to use a letter to the school through the newspaper as a means of explaining it.

The teacher suggests that they compose the letter as a group. In planning the letter, she reminds them that they should take a view point from which to write and state it clearly. She helps them see this situation as very similar to many in adult life where each group agrees to compromise its own interests for the sake of a total plan that is better for all others.

Pupils state their point of view as a compromise for all so that all will be safe at play and state this position at the beginning and end of the letter. They examine each part of the composition to be sure that there is consistency in view point.

PARAGRAPH DEVELOPMENT

Fourth Grade

EXPECTED READINESS

The child

... divides his written discourse into sentences and paragraphs on the basis of unitary nature of meaning.

... uses other bases than time sequence by which to organize his discourse.

... uses written language for a broad variety of purposes.

OBJECTIVES

The child will

... divide his composition into sentences and paragraphs and give reasons for his decisions.

... examine paragraphs in a variety of forms of printed material and state the basis of division and the basis of organization.

... recognize logical and psychological bases for organizing discourse and for division into paragraphs.

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

1. To divide his composition into paragraphs with confidence and give simple reasons for his decisions.

Example: Letters are written to order materials needed for a unit in geography. Decisions are made concerning content of each letter, all using a common paragraph in the beginning telling who is writing and the purpose for which they will use descriptive materials. The remainder of each letter differs but includes the titles of the materials desired. The teacher suggests that some of the addressees may have additional materials for which the children do not have the titles. The pupils mention that a request for other items would require another paragraph. Discussion helps all to agree to reasons for such a division. On each occasion of writing, the teacher initiates discussion of appropriate paragraphing, encouraging pupils to give reasons for their decisions.

2. To examine paragraphs in a variety of forms of printed material and state the basis of division into paragraphs and the basis of organization.

Example: The following kinds of materials are useful in illustrating the relationships of purpose, principles of order in presentation, and division into paragraphs:

(1) News stories frequently present a summary statement in the first paragraph, and follow it with details.

(2) Advertising often presents a statement of value and persuades with detail.

(3) Conversation in direct quotes divides into paragraphs as each different person speaks. The text of a play would be an interesting comparison to conversation.

(4) Factual accounts, such as in history or science texts, contain many paragraphs that state a generalization and develop details that support the generalization.

(5) Directions for making objects or carrying out a process use a step-by-step sequence, in order of time.

Pupils need not use the technical words to describe these methods of using language, nor do they need to attempt to write paragraphs of all these kinds. Just as the younger child, through experience with oral language he hears, gains for his own use the sentence patterns of his native language, so the child who has mastered the process of reading written language can gain a sense of the patterns of presentation in written language for his own use.

3. To recognize logical and psychological bases for organizing discourse and for dividing into paragraphs.

Example: Factual accounts often require a logical organization.

Example: The psychological order of presentation is illustrated by directions, and by persuasive writing such as advertising. What does the reader want to know first, second --? In what order must the writer present the information if he wishes to convince the reader that the writer's ideas are reasonable?

PARAGRAPH DEVELOPMENT

Fifth Grade

EXPECTED READINESS

The child

... divides his discourse into paragraphs, giving reasons for the division on the basis of units of meaning.

... recognizes in printed materials the author's organization of ideas in sentences and paragraphs.

... uses chronological, logical, and psychological bases for organizing discourse.

OBJECTIVES

The child will

... use a simple outline as a lead to paragraphing.

... use topics in the form of topic sentences as a basis for developing paragraphs.

... examine his paragraphs for unity as part of editing and improving compositions.

... examine paragraphs in a variety of printed material to study how paragraphs are developed.

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

1. To use a simple outline as a lead to paragraphing.

Example: In a study of Maine, several students choose to write a report about fishing. From the first reference they use, it appears that the report will give a chronological account of the process of fishing and marketing. The division into paragraphs is planned with one paragraph to describe preparation of boats and nets, another the fishing trip, and the third the return home. Another group gives descriptions of the ship, the navigation instruments, and the way nets are made. Another group compares the simpler methods used by early settlers. Each group writes the topics to follow, which become the core of each paragraph written. In consultation with the teacher, they prepare a topical outline to precede their report in its final form.

The teacher uses this outline in suggesting a good way to start each paragraph by expanding the topic into an introductory sentence. When the reports are ready to edit before the final copy, the teacher asks each group to read its report to the class and to get suggestions for improvement.

When the reports are finished, put them in a folder on the reading table, refer to them as important sources of information, and encourage all children to read them.

Example: The teacher takes occasion in many lessons to call attention to the headings in a textbook in history, geography, health, and science as indications of the topics in the outline used by the writer. She writes these simple outlines on the board and follows them in discussing lesson material. She asks several pupils to report on one of the topics in the lesson, using the topical heading as a lead to finding relevant material in the encyclopedia.

2. To use topics in the form of topic sentences as a basis for developing paragraphs.

Example: Since the logic of the topic sentence is more readily apparent in paragraphs of factual content, the teacher may choose this type of writing as practice. Descriptions of a process or directions for a game are good examples.

The teacher initiates a discussion about making kites. There are several children who have assembled kites from commercial kits, some who have made kites from the raw materials, and several others who have flown kites already assembled. Several prefer to write on "How to Fly a Kite," others choose "How to Make a Kite," and others agree to explain "What Makes a Kite Fly." Three groups are formed, each one (1) makes a topical outline of their report, (2) states each topic in form of a sentence which will introduce each paragraph, (3) assigns each member of the group a paragraph to write from the topic sentences.

When the three papers are assembled, it is likely that there is some overlap between paragraphs, evidence that the topics were not clear or that one paragraph or both include material beyond the topic assigned. These questions are resolved among members of the group with the teacher's help.

An experience of this sort could extend over several days, some time being spent each day in discussing progress, and a suitable time period being allowed for work in groups or individually. When the papers are finished, the children read them to the class for comments about organization, and clarity of statements. Careful revision is made to correct spelling, punctuation, and form. The real value of such papers will be shown when students actually follow the directions and criticize the results.

Example: The teacher writes one or several carefully limited topics on the board and assigns one paragraph to be written on one of the topics. Each pupil reads his paragraph, and its unity is discussed by the class. "Did he need two paragraphs? What makes you think so? Where would you divide it? Did he use a topic sentence? Would it be more clearly a unit if he had?"

Example: The students plan individual reports on subjects from social science or science. Each decides upon the topics he expects to include. The teacher suggests that each child keep several sheets of paper on his desk. He uses one sheet for each different topic, adding to this sheet the ideas and information that seem to belong to each topic. Especially is this helpful if he is using several references to gather factual material for a report. When he has collected information for each topic, he studies his notes and decides upon the organization suitable for each paragraph.

3. To examine his paragraphs for unity as part of editing and improving compositions.

Example: Revising written compositions is most suitable when the reader is preparing a paper which serves an actual purpose of communicating to a real reader. Many such occasions arise or can be planned by teachers and pupils. For practice in improving writing, pupils consider pertinent questions: (1) Is this paragraph about one topic? (2) Can I name the topic? (3) Does everything in this paragraph seem to belong here? (4) Would a topic sentence make this paragraph better? (5) Where is the most effective place to use a topic sentence?

4. To examine paragraphs in a variety of printed materials to study how paragraphs are developed.

Example: The pupils study how competent writers develop paragraphs.

The teacher asks similar questions concerning paragraphs read as those asked concerning paragraphs written. The basic question is "What is the topic of the paragraph?"

The teacher selects carefully those paragraphs to be studied. Some basic types of paragraph development are suitable for attention: (1) paragraphs which have a clear topic sentence as the first sentence, (2) paragraphs which have a summary sentence as the last one, (3) paragraphs that state an opinion or conclusion in the first sentence, and present details or illustration to support it, (4) paragraphs that present step-by-step reasoning to a conclusion at the end, (5) paragraphs in narration which achieve unity in a variety of ways, often with no topic sentence.

PARAGRAPH DEVELOPMENT

Sixth Grade

EXPECTED READINESS

The child

... divides his written composition into sentences and paragraphs on the basis of his analysis of meaning.

... uses chronological, logical, and psychological bases for organizing and dividing into paragraphs and can state his reasons for selecting the basis in terms of meaning and purpose.

... uses an outline as the basis for paragraphs in some kind of writing.

... recognizes variety in the ways writers develop paragraphs.

OBJECTIVES

The child will

... use a topic sentence as the basis for developing a paragraph when it suits his purpose and content.

... distinguish the writing situations in which topic sentences are suitable or unsuitable.

... recognize the variety of ways writers develop paragraphs, and try out some of the ways as suitable to his own writing.

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

Pupils at this level have developed enough independence in writing that they can write for a variety of purposes and about a variety of content. Within any class group, there will be a wide range of abilities and competencies, as well as differences among children as to their own confidence and pleasure in writing. The teacher responsible for written composition as a skill will wish to notice all the writing the students are doing in any subject and for any purposes of their own. She can thus use all their writing as a basis for study and improvement. She will assign writing of various kinds only as it is required to afford the opportunities for learning which are not otherwise available in their writing assignments in other subjects. This will be a simple arrangement if there is only one teacher for the group, but if there are several teachers involved in the several subject areas some collaboration among the several teachers about what the children are learning can make possible continuous progress for the children.

1. To use a topic sentence as the basis for developing a paragraph when it suits his purpose and content.

Example: Reports of reading have been made orally and kept in brief form on cards by each pupil. The teacher suggests that each pupil select his favorite book and write one paragraph that will encourage someone else to read it. Each paragraph will be put on a card to be filed so that other pupils may read it. Individual pupils have the opportunity to confer with the teacher during writing or to try their paragraphs for effect by sharing with another pupil. When the paragraphs are complete, the teacher reads them all, selects some to illustrate varying ways to develop a paragraph, and reads these to the class for study. The paragraphs are filed for the use planned.

Example: The teacher refers to the experience described above and asks the class to list some other types of purpose-audience-content relationships in which the topic sentence would be suitable. Description is mentioned, and several pupils locate descriptive passages in novels. They find that some paragraphs in these passages developed from topic sentences, but most have no topic or summary sentences. In looking for descriptive paragraphs, several students begin to notice direct quotations.

Each pupil in the group agrees to write at least one descriptive paragraph using a topic sentence, and one passage of conversation that might seem natural with a topic sentence beginning a paragraph.

2. To distinguish the writing situations in which topic sentences are suitable or unsuitable.

Example: After some concentration on paragraphing and use of topic sentences, the teacher discusses and plans with the class a writing assignment, with no mention of paragraphing in the preparation period. When the compositions are complete, she asks each pupil to examine his paragraphs, judge whether he made divisions into paragraphs suitably, and look for sentences that summarize the topic of the paragraph. Each of several pupils projects his paper with an overhead projector and reads it to the class. When he is through reading, he shows which paragraphs have a topic sentence and which ones do not. He should be able to justify his judgments about the usefulness of the topic sentence for each paragraph. When the discussion involves the majority of the class, so that they understand the considerations, each pupil writes his analysis of his own paper, and confers with a partner to check out his opinions.

Example: As the children become more expert in these discussions, the class develops a guide, stating what kinds of paragraphs usually have a topic sentence, what kinds are less likely to, and those kinds which seldom do. To accompany this guide, they may select illustrative paragraphs from their own papers or from reading material.

3. To recognize the variety of ways writers develop paragraphs and to try out some of the ways as suitable to his own writing.

Example: As an additional section of the guide to paragraph writing mentioned above, pupils may name and illustrate from their own or others' writing several ways of developing paragraphs: topic sentence with supporting details; topic sentence stating an opinion with reasons for holding the opinion; statement of generalization with factual findings which support the generalization; generalization and sample illustration of factual data; question and several answers.

Example: Rather than select a topic from writing, the teacher suggests one of the kinds of paragraph development as the focus of writing, each pupil choosing and describing purpose, audience, and content suitable to developing the particular kind of paragraph agreed to. Such efforts might be compared to the illustrative paragraphs in their guide.

Example: On occasion of any writing, in the preparation period, the discussion includes defining the purpose, the audience, and the content. While paragraphs are a center of emphasis, this preparatory discussion should include consideration of how best to develop the paragraph for this purpose, for this audience, using this content.

CHOICE OF A FORM FOR THE CONTENT OF A COMPOSITION

PERSONAL LETTERS

Fourth Grade

EXPECTED READINESS

The child

... uses common punctuation and capitalization in personal letters, in the body of the letter, in the heading, and in the closing.

... writes the personal letter in acceptable form--indentation, margins, legibility.

... enjoys and evaluates the personal letters of well-known people.

... shows development of standard usage appropriate to his developmental level.

OBJECTIVES

The child will

... improve handwriting as a special example of courtesy to the intended reader.

... distinguish the use of capitals in names like Mother, when used instead of a name, buildings, special groups, and titles of written materials.

... recognize specific instances of punctuation: quotation marks with exact words of speaker; comma in personal letters and business letters; colon in business letters.

... practice the conventions for placing a letter on the page and the address on the envelope.

... practice proof-reading and editing his own and others' writing.

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

1. To improve handwriting as a special example of courtesy to the intended reader.

Cursive writing should be fairly well developed by the fourth grade. Formalized group work is becoming scarcer and scarcer, for good reason; individual help is what is required most of all at this level. Some systems of handwriting have what is called a "Visible Guide." This polyethylene model may be placed over the child's writing, showing where his own handwriting deviates from the model. Sometimes this is a very effective motivation, as are other kinds of models.

Emphasis from the teacher and from class discussions can be on the courtesy aspect of neatness and legibility. Examination, too, of the photostats of letters of famous people may be instructive. Although the handwriting differs, each of the samples may be useful as examples of variations in legibility.

2. To distinguish the use of capitals in names like Mother, when used instead of a name, buildings, special groups, and titles of written materials.

Example: In writing letters, children often use Mother as a name, and quite generally expect that the word is always capitalized. On an occasion when the pupil is using it as a common noun, the teacher calls it to the attention of the group, and helps them make the distinction between its use as a name and as a title. Words designating other family members are discussed: father, brother, sister, aunt, grandmother, etc.

Other similar illustrations are introduced and illustrated. (1) Words included in the name of a specific place, building, or organization: Lake Woodland, Telephone Building, Roadside Cafe, Town Square, State College, Cooperative Dairy, Central Elementary School, etc.

(2) Titles of books, stories, poems, and compositions may be seen as related to such specific titles as included above.

Practice in recognizing such needs for capital letters are made a part of a general review of capitals in other uses. Pupils are able to recall or find many uses of capitalization and verbalize the reasons for most of them. A list may be developed and posted as a reminder, so that pupils become more independent of the teacher in most cases.

Pupils begin a collection of examples of capitals in uses they have not recognized before. Change in usage will be illustrated in newspapers and periodicals.

3. To recognize specific instances of punctuation: Quotation marks with exact words of speaker; comma in personal letters and business letters; colon in business letters.

Example: It is often helpful to use dramatization to distinguish direct quotations.

In connection with a unit on letters, the teacher might suggest that the event to be related in a personal letter be acted out for the group before the writing begins. After the skit has been presented and the actual writing has begun, any difficulty in the correct placement of quotation marks can be referred back to the actual play itself. Did one of the characters actually say these words? What were his exact words? These are the ones to be set off by the quotation marks.

Example: The use of direct address and its correct punctuation can be studied in connection with the letter unit by showing the similarity between the way a direct address is set off by commas, just as the direct address or salutation of a letter is set off from the rest of the letter by a comma. In a business letter, a colon is used to set off the direct address. All these instances can be illustrated by the teacher on the board, by means of exercises, or by the presentation of short personal letters read orally.

4. To practice the conventions for placement of the letter on the page and the address on the envelope.

Example: Children take pride in the pleasingly balanced envelope address. Some of the students who are research minded can make a collection of envelopes from personal letters received by a number of persons. They can examine these and make a report to the class as to what seems to be the most common placement of the address on the envelope. Maybe the class would like to discuss whether they think this way is the most attractive or not. A decision can be made, and a rule formulated.

The placement of the letter itself on the page or pages should also be considered. Typed letters are illustrative of the need to consider placement.

5. To practice proof-reading and editing his own and others' writing.

Example: Young writers use many ways of evaluating and improving their work. The teacher or other pupils react to their messages, and readers respond to their letters. Good models consisting of board work, room charts, and posters are a great aid to a pupil in his attempts at self-correction. Text book models are good, but not as effective as work actually produced in the classroom. Seeing his compositions in typed form makes it possible for the child to be aware of changes which would improve his work.

Some students need a secluded place in which they can read aloud to themselves or to one of their friends the written work they have just done. The writer's ear may catch a mistake that his eye misses. His friend may hear something he wishes to question. Letters to each other in the classroom will motivate a student to improve his work.

The teacher reads the child's composition or letter with him, so that he can himself look at his work through the eyes of the reader. He is able to use her skill in finding ineffective passages in which he has not served his purpose, to reason as she questions, and to achieve more effective writing. Similarly, her skill in seeing errors in spelling, punctuation, capitalization, and usage allows him to make the correction with understanding. He has participated in proof-reading with her. As he gains skill and knowledge, she encourages independence in the process.

PERSONAL LETTERS

Fifth Grade

EXPECTED READINESS

The child

... writes legibly, suitably for personal correspondence.

... uses in personal letters the conventions of capitalization, punctuation, and arrangement on the page and the envelope.

... uses simple methods of proof-reading and editing.

OBJECTIVES

The child will

... produce an attractive and creative personal letter on a definite theme.

... construct sentences and paragraphs making use of topic sentences as a means of producing a unified personal letter.

... use a simple outline in organizing a functional personal letter.

... use appropriately specific instances of punctuation.

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

1. To produce an attractive and creative personal letter on a definite theme.

Example: The pupils are led to recognize that letters can express a theme--such as the feeling of a season of the year, a mood, a point of view, an opinion, or an event. Discussion results in selection of several possible themes. The teacher leads the pupils to develop at least one of them as an example. The first spring day is the choice of the pupils to develop. Suggestions are made for a three paragraph development, as a suitable basis for a friendly letter. The paragraphs are planned, each with a main idea based on feelings engendered by the weather: (1) Cold and dreary winter days seem all alike. (2) A spring day is new and fresh. (3) It brings a feeling that something exciting is about to happen. Pupils see these ideas as topic sentences, and discuss the feeling expressed in each paragraph.

Starting with a theme makes this seem like a poem rather than a letter, because a letter usually is planned by considering a practical message to a certain person. The teacher suggests that some letters do arise from a feeling that is expressed to an absent person, just as one might express a feeling to a person who is present. Each pupil decides what person known to him would like to share his feelings about a spring day.

The teacher uses this opportunity to explore the ways in which communication comes about. Sometimes the hearer (reader, receiver) is the important consideration--as when a person away from home writes to the family, even though the message is no more than "wish you were here." Other messages are planned because there are practical results, as when one writes for information. In the case of feelings, such as the letter being planned, the writer feels strongly and has a need to share the feeling--so he chooses a person who will appreciate his feeling and his wish to share it.

Each pupil develops the letter, using a topic sentence for each of three paragraphs, developing details which he chooses.

2. To construct sentences and paragraphs making use of topic sentences as a means of producing a unified personal letter.

Example: Sentence and paragraph construction activities have engaged the pupils previously. Students are encouraged to select an expositional topic, write an informal paragraph or two about it, then incorporate it into a personal letter. The idea that a personal letter must adhere to certain organization of material, depending upon the subject matter, leads the student to study his sentence and paragraph construction.

Example: Class construction of a letter, as was done at the kindergarten and first grade level, will help pupils develop organization and critical discussion. As the letter construction progresses through joint effort, organization will be emphasized.

3. To use a simple outline in organizing a personal letter.

Help children plan personal letters by making a brief list of things they want to say. Encourage them to review the list to determine (1) most appropriate sequence of presentation of content and (2) adequacy of information.

Example: The class discusses a topic to be included in a personal letter. Various items for inclusion are suggested, and some selected as suitable. A tentative organization of the idea is proposed, and the topics to be covered are subdivided into the sections and their subheadings. These topics are written on file cards in complete sentences. The subject matter is reviewed, and then the sentences on the cards examined again. If a joint topic has been chosen for the letters, much of this is done by class discussion. If the topics are individually chosen, the teacher's help can be given individually.

4. To use appropriate punctuation and capitalization in letters.

Example: In all experiences in written composition the specifics in punctuation are studied. However, a few of these uses of punctuation apply quite directly to personal letters, and can be studied again, or re-emphasized whenever a personal letter is written. Specific classroom activities, selected by the teacher to fit her own classroom situation, would fit in very well in any letter unit: periods in abbreviations; commas after the name of city, before the zip code; colons to introduce lists; apostrophes to show possession; hyphens to designate word divisions; underlining for italics.

PERSONAL LETTERS

Sixth Grade

EXPECTED READINESS

... produces an attractive, courteous, interesting, well-planned personal letter, in good taste, and in the conventional form.

... understands and uses conventions of punctuation and capitalization at his developmental level.

... understands and uses syntactic forms suitable to the developmental level.

... proof-reads and edits his own and others' work in producing competent letters.

OBJECTIVES

The child will

... produce attractive, courteous, interesting, well-planned and well-written letters reflecting his own personality and based on consideration of the relationships among writer, content, and intended reader.

... appreciate personal letters as an example of literary form--to be read for enjoyment and appreciation as well as for information.

... choose to use the personal letter as a form for his own creative writing.

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

1. To produce attractive, courteous, interesting, well-planned and well-written letters reflecting his own personality and based on consideration of the relationships among writer, content, and intended reader.

Example: Some students plan a project in which each writes a series of personal letters to some real or imaginary person, and conceals the author's identity from all except the teacher. These letters can be self-corrected, or proof-read, and also read by the teacher with suggestions for revision. When these letters are typed, they are posted on the bulletin boards or walls of the classroom. The class members will read the complete project of each student to see if they can discover the identity of the author by his style or theme.

2. To appreciate personal letters as an example of literary form--to be read for enjoyment and appreciation as well as for information.

Example: Assignments for written composition in any of the other subject matter areas might be required to be written in letter form instead of report form, theme form, or story form. In this way the student may begin to realize the many different ways in which the letter form may be used as a literary form or vehicle.

Example: Pupils read letters written by prominent persons, as found in the literature. Some pupils take as a library project making a bibliography of such letters, reporting to the class as they find interesting letters, and collecting books on the classroom shelves for others to enjoy.

3. To choose to use the personal letter as a form for his own creative writing.

Example: The student could make a file of his own containing examples of all the different ways a personal letter can be used--each in his own characteristic style. As a new form occurs to him, he can add it to his collection. These collections are displayed for classmates, parents, or other classes to examine.

Example: The obvious goal of the study of the personal letter is the development of skill and habitual use of the letter-writing as a personally meaningful means of communication. The teacher encourages each pupil to begin and to continue a regular correspondence with at least one suitable person. A family member may be chosen for the pleasure he will receive from extra letters from home. A previous neighbor or school mate, an acquaintance in the armed services, or a friend of the family are suitable selections. Some way of reporting to the class letters written and received would encourage such uses of the competence pupils are gaining.

FORMAL CORRESPONDENCE: BUSINESS LETTERS

Fourth Grade

Overview:

The major purpose of this unit is to equip children to write formal correspondence that is effective. Formal correspondence encompasses more than business letters; the writing may be as mechanical as filling in a form or as emotional as expressing opinion to an editor. What all types of formal correspondence have in common is the desire to cause reaction--mailing the completed box top in order to receive some exciting new possession, writing an organization for material in order to complete a project, stating opinions publicly to stimulate thought and perhaps change. These reactions are elicited only through effective manipulation of the formal writing situation.

Children have the vocabulary and enough organizational skills to be able to feel secure in whatever kind of formal correspondence is necessary at this level. Another purpose of this unit is to help them recognize which kind of response is appropriate for various formal writing occasions. They will be able to perceive the differences in type of business mail they receive, from "Dear Batman Fan:" to "Dear Master (or Miss):", and what obligation, if any, they have to reply.

The emphasis on form will be minor since this has been presented previously. Content will be stressed since it involves a greater amount of personal judgment. It is important that children realize that form is a convention of courtesy and, if observed, gives the reader a good first impression and opens his mind to what the sender has to say.

EXPECTED READINESS

The child

... recognizes that his choice of reader and purpose determines whether his letter is formal or informal, and he is aware that he handles these types differently.

... is able to state his purpose for writing.

... has sufficient experience in composition to organize sentences and paragraphs meaningfully for communication.

OBJECTIVES

The child will

... determine when a business letter should be written and identify the basis of his choice.

... use habitually the conventional form of the letter or will locate models for form.

... express himself clearly and concisely.

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

1. To determine when a business letter should be written and to identify the basis of his choice.

Example: Have children watch the mail that comes into their home for any period of five consecutive days; record who it is from, who it is for, and how it is handled (answered, put aside, thrown away). The children will bring their record to school along with any samples of this mail that they are allowed to take out of the home.

The children form small groups to help each other classify this mail, in terms of how it should be answered (personal versus business), or of its demands (bill, charity appeal, sales promotion, desire for news of family, greeting card, etc.).

When groups have reached their decisions, the teacher writes the categories on the board and records how many of each type. The class reviews the differences between personal and business letters. There may be some items not clearly classified which can be discussed by the class.

Review the principle that business correspondence usually involves wanting something, either information, permission, money, service, or something else; they probably come from someone unknown to the receiver personally.

2. To use habitually the conventional form of the letter or to locate models and rules for form.

Example: Even before the person is really ready to make a final copy of his letter, he needs to consider on what kind of paper to write and with what instrument. Children can learn this by making a simple survey.

The children check the local stores for the variety of paper sold as business stationery. They hold an informal discussion of the common characteristics they probably found: usually plain white paper, high grade, maybe with a letterhead, envelopes usually matching. Help children understand that a neat letter on good quality paper is just as much a personal representative of the writer as any decorated paper he may use for personal correspondence.

When is typing a letter all right? Why, as a general rule, should one avoid using brightly colored ink? Would it be acceptable for a child to write in pencil?

Have children see a sample of the school stationery and that of any business acquaintances. Give the children the idea that this is the grown up way of corresponding.

Example: Have the class organize and add to a file of formal correspondence and envelopes. Each child may be given some to look over and see how different businesses handle the parts. Discuss variation and whether it was justified or not. Help children to realize that the form has meaning and that any variation should be carefully considered before making it.

3. To express himself clearly and concisely in many kinds of formal, practical writing situations.

Example: This exercise is to help children see the importance of clear information in a letter.

As a real situation requires a business letter to be written, a teacher tells the class that she has composed a letter, but she thinks it is not quite clear enough. What could they do to improve it?

Palmer School
Room 107
January 9, 1968

Mr. Stanley, Custodian
Palmer School
Savannah, Georgia 32074

Dear Mr. Stanley:

Would you please look after our pets over the weekends when no one is here for class?

Thank you very much.

Sincerely,

Miss Clarke

What do you think Mr. Stanley would do as a result of this letter? Do we just want him to put his head in the door to see that our animals are all right? Which pets should he look after? Do we want him to give every pet fresh water and food? The children compose a clearer, more meaningful letter.

Another sample letter that would be useful:

Palmer School
Room 107
May 2, 1968

Mrs. Jenson, Dietician
Palmer School
Savannah, Georgia 32074

Dear Mrs. Jenson:

Our class especially enjoyed what we had to eat last Thursday, and the dessert was wonderful. Would you please fix that again soon?

Sincerely,

James Scott
Class Representative
Miss Clark's Fourth Grade

What will Mrs. Jenson have to do? What if she no longer has last week's menu around? How could this be a clearer letter?

Example: This exercise is aimed at the children's recognition of why more business-like language is used in formal situations.

Pick some letters from the class file that begin very impersonally, and ask the class to think about how they as individuals would feel getting such a letter. Would they be very much interested in doing what the letter requested? Then pick some that are addressed to specific individuals. How does this change one's feelings about doing what the letter asks? What if the letter were from someone unknown and it began by greeting one by his first name?

How would the reader feel about the writer then?

How would one write the salutation of a letter to the school principal? the classroom teacher? one's mother? the president of the PTA? one's friend? one's uncle? one's father who is in business here and is sending materials to the class?

Example: All of the following suggestions are made in order to provide children with various real situations in which they might write business letters or those containing practical information:

(1) Help individuals make out catalog orders at Christmas or birthday time.

(2) Have the class compose the letter the teacher would send to a supplier of scientific equipment that is needed for a project.

(3) The class or certain highly interested children could compose a letter to a local representative asking for clarification of a political issue.

(4) The teacher can have the children fill in any applications that come to her concerning the class as a whole by mimeographing the form.

(5) Committees may write letters of acknowledgement of receipt of free materials from various sources.

(6) Individuals or the class can write the school paper to express opinion.

FORMAL CORRESPONDENCE: BUSINESS LETTERS

Fifth Grade

EXPECTED READINESS

The child

... determines the type of letter, personal or business, and the form of the letter on the basis of his purpose and his intended reader.

... selects content and language appropriate to purpose and reader.

... uses habitually the conventions of form of letters, of common punctuation and capitalization usage.

OBJECTIVES

The child will

... extend his experience in letter writing and will express himself clearly in many kinds of formal, practical writing situations.

... expect writing letters to become a part of his regular activities.

... value his ability to communicate to others in writing and to see results of his writing.

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

1. To extend his experience in letter writing and to express himself clearly in many kinds of formal, practical writing situations.

Example: A specific time is set aside each week for children to write their own correspondence, a 30-45 minute block of time. The majority of the writing will probably be personal letters; however, this is also the time for attention to whatever kinds of practical writing a child may want to do. He may be filling out a printed form to send away for something, he may be writing a Chamber of Commerce for vacation brochures, he may be making application to join an organization, he may be writing a company to find out why his order has not yet come, or he may be writing a statement to the school principal concerning some change he may want.

2. To expect writing letters to become a part of his regular activities.

Example: All kinds of writing call for different degrees of skill. If there is a special time for such writing, most children soon will realize that they have developed some skill in communicating, and will come to value the opportunity. For the reluctant, stimulation by the teacher can be given by helping him with such activities as printing his name and address on a form to send along with the enclosed box top and quarter. Even minimal achievements can give him a sense of accomplishment in something he can do on his own.

During this period, groups may also be encouraged to work together on any correspondence relevant to their particular project. This is also an opportunity for the teacher to take any suggestions about a business letter from the class to an organization or company.

3. To value his ability to communicate to others in writing and to see results of his writing.

Example: At this grade level most of the children will be able to work independently. They should be able to refer to a class file of real correspondence (see Unit at Fourth Grade), their friends in class, and the teacher. Children may need models to remind them of form, opportunities to read aloud to each other to check adequate statement of intended meaning, opportunities to proof and edit each others writing.

The final evaluation of a letter is its response from the receiver. However, this response is, at this age level, not sufficient as the only feedback from a communication. The teacher and class will form an intermediate reader as a check on effectiveness of writing.

FORMAL CORRESPONDENCE: BUSINESS LETTERS

Sixth Grade

EXPECTED READINESS

The child

... has had previous experience with a variety of formal, practical, business correspondence.

... has a knowledge of the appropriate forms and language for a variety of situations.

... expects writing letters to be a part of his regular activities.

... values his ability to communicate through letters.

OBJECTIVES

The child will

... recognize readily which kind of written response is appropriate to the situation.

... initiate occasions for formal writing.

... increase his ability to compose letters for a purpose, judge effectiveness, and improve form and effectiveness in his own writing.

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

1. To recognize readily which kind of written response is appropriate to the situation.

Example: As children develop their hobbies, bring them to class, and share them, there may develop occasions for business correspondence.

Each child should be encouraged to write to known experts in his area of interest. The purpose of such a letter might be to inquire about some aspect of the hobby, to offer an exchange of items, to invite the individual to speak and/or to show his collection to the class, or to express admiration for some achievement such as a collection that the child may have seen exhibited publicly.

The child should be aware that some persons do not have the time or money to answer all letters personally, so the reason for writing should be carefully determined. He may decide to include a stamped, self-addressed envelope for a desired response.

These letters do not necessarily have to go to a person, they may be written to a company which may provide classroom samples. This is particularly true of Chambers of Commerce. There are also many large companies that will provide samples of their product and brochures explaining processing.

2. To initiate occasions for formal writing.

Example: Many local radio stations give public service announcements regarding lost pets, the activities of clubs, and the like. Children could use this service and put their announcement in clear writing. After the station has given it, the children should recognize the appropriateness of a written thank-you, especially if the pet was found or the social event was well attended. In any case, a written appreciation for the effort of the station is a good idea.

Example: Some local businesses cater to young clients. As children think about their own experiences in this area, some will wish to express their appreciation for the general attitude of the store or the help of a particular person. The children will easily understand that people too often remark only about things they may dislike but that the effort to praise something good is well worth it.

There are really many opportunities for such letters. Appreciation may be shown for special services to children, an article may be written for the local newspaper about a class project, and letters to city officials for the Easter egg hunt in the park, to the theater manager for a kind of film that was greatly enjoyed, to the television station for a special program, to the school board for the new science lab, and many more.

These letters need not be long, but the language should be appropriate and warm. As children think about writing these, and actually do write some, they will be developing a habit of sensing situations in which they can initiate a written expression and feel very good about it.

3. To increase his ability to compose letters for a purpose, judge effectiveness, and improve form and effectiveness in his own writing.

Example: The teacher has recognized that an increasing number of pupils have completed writing tasks independently, and have shown pride in their independence. She has commented individually to the children when a particularly successful paper is completed. She judges that those not yet showing such independence could profit from group activity to encourage such efforts.

The class is involved in a study of another part of the country and has decided certain letters to write to receive descriptive literature. She suggests that most of the class has been writing independently in many forms of writing but not always in business letters. It seems suitable to check on their confidence in making decisions about content, clarity of expression, form of the letter, and proofreading.

Discussion results in many suggestions as to how best to be independent in each step of writing. The teacher suggests a statement to include the best helps mentioned, and a chart to post to remind each student of ways to become independent.

When the chart is developed, children and teacher attempt to use it for reference rather than depending on help from others.

Before letters are put in final form, the teacher initiates discussion with the class, beginning with the helps on the chart, but asking what additional kind of help is still needed. This inquiry should result in recognition that all writers do need the reading and editing help of others for some purposes. This generalization, as it is considered with specific examples used from their papers, might well result in a further generalization concerning the nature of language. The meaning communicated through language contains not only the meaning intended by the speaker or writer, but the meaning chosen by the hearer or teacher at points where language by its very nature, allows more than one interpretation.

STORIES AND PLAYS

Fourth Grade

EXPECTED READINESS

The child

- ... recognizes several ways in which the time in which a story takes place is indicated.
- ... recognizes several ways in which the place-setting of a story is indicated.
- ... understands that there are different kinds of characters in stories and that these characters may be presented in different ways.

OBJECTIVES

The child will

- ... understand that the same object or incident can be described in different ways for different purposes.
- ... understand that details and words must be carefully chosen for effective description.
- ... understand that narrative deals primarily with action, which consists of a meaningful series of events.
- ... understand that narrative has a beginning, a middle, and an end.

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

1. To develop understanding that the same object or incident can be described in different ways for different purposes.

Example: Present a situation to be described:

One boy knocks the ice cream cone from the hand of another.

1. Describe the situation to show that this was an accident.

2. Describe the situation to show that is was intentional.

Example: Children describe a cat, being as accurate and factual as possible.

Then they describe a cat, showing how they feel about the cat as a pet.

Read Eleanor Farjeon's "A Kitten" or Edith H. Newlin's "Tiger-Cat Tim" (factual descriptions) and Jane Taylor's "I Love Little Pussy" or Dorothy Baruch's "Cat" (description as a pet). Ask the children which kind of description each poem presents.

2. To understand that details and words must be carefully chosen for effective description.

Example: The teacher tells a child to walk slowly across the room. After the child has done this, the teacher asks the children to tell her what the child did, putting each new version on the board. She then asks the group which sentence best describes the action. What is the best verb used? Is there a better one? Go to the Thesaurus and see if these is a synonym for "walked slowly" that might be a better word.

Read the passage from the beginning of The Wind in the Willows which describes Mole's efforts to come to the top of the ground. What are the words that make you know the animal struggled? Do they help you to see his struggles?

Example: Ask the class to think of distinguishing characteristics that would help to describe someone so that another person could recognize him immediately. What would they choose to tell about? Would they say that he had two ears, two eyes, and a nose? But if he had two noses they would tell that, wouldn't they? Each child makes one sentence which describes a person everyone knows so well that the person can be identified without further information.

The children then write a brief description of a person known by the class (could be a television personality); some read their descriptions to the class and let the class guess who the person is.

3. To understand that narrative deals primarily with action, which consists of a meaningful series of events.

Example: Write on the board the following series of events:

(1) He washed his hands and face.
He brushed his teeth.
He went to bed.

(2) He was lonesome.
He saw a puppy.
His mother bought him the puppy.
He and the puppy were constant companions.

(3) The flowers bloomed.
The birds sang.
The wind blew.

Ask which series would make the best subject matter for a story and why. The child then composes a similar series of events that he thinks would make a good story.

Example: Which of the following sentences seems to suggest a story? Why?

The trees were loaded with apples.

As Joe and his family watched from the bluff, a huge ship, frightening because of its guns, dropped anchor in their cove.

Example: Read a story to the class, leaving out any unimportant details. Then read the entire story to the group. Ask them to decide which way they like the story best. Did the details which were given in the second reading contribute to the clarity of characters, places and action?

4. To understand that narrative has a beginning, a middle, and an end.

Example: After the class has taken a field trip, ask them where the field trip began. Did it begin at the site of the trip? Did it begin when they left the school-house? Did it begin when they studied and became curious and decided to go on a field trip? If the latter is true, then a description of the field trip should begin there. What would be the next step to be written about? The plans? What would be the last step? Put the main topics on the board and ask the children to write a description of their field trip.

Example: Play the "Ghost Story Game," in which one member of the group starts a story and the others add portions to the story.

Example: After the class has heard the story Lentil by Robert McCloskey ask them to identify the event which starts the action of the story. Discuss the way in which the ending is a direct result of the beginning and how it resolves the problem presented in the beginning.

References

Baruch, Dorothy. "Cat" in May Hill Arbuthnot (ed.), The Arbuthnot Anthology of Children's Literature. Revised Edition. New York: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1961. p. 49.

Farjeon, Eleanor. "A Kitten" in May Hill Arbuthnot (ed.), The Arbuthnot Anthology of Children's Literature. Revised Edition. New York: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1961. p. 48.

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STORIES AND PLAYS

Fifth Grade

EXPECTED READINESS

The child

... understands that there are different kinds of description and that the choice of one depends upon the purpose of the description.

... understands that details and words must be chosen carefully for effective description.

... understands that narrative deals primarily with action, which consists of a meaningful series of events.

... understands that narrative has a beginning, a middle, and an end.

OBJECTIVES

The child will

... understand that description may be used in narrative to convey the time of action, the place in which an action occurs, the characters who participate in that action, and the action itself.

... understand that both narration and description are written from a point of view.

... understand that description may be conveyed through dialogue.

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

1. To understand that description in narrative may be used to convey the time of an action, the place in which an action occurs, the characters who participate in that action, and the action itself.

Example: After the group has read in history about the assassination of Abraham Lincoln ask them to imagine that they were in the audience. Describe what happened.

Example: After the class has studied lightning rods and their uses, ask them to imagine that they are testing the first lightning rod and to write a paragraph describing the storm in which they tested it.

2. To understand that both narration and description are written from a point of view.

Example: Tell the children that they have just seen a bank robbery. Ask them to describe that bank robbery as they saw it, as the bank teller saw it, and as the robber saw it.

Example: Ask the children to imagine that they are their baby brother or sister or a pet watching them have a fuss with another brother or sister or a friend; tell them to describe that fuss.

Example: Read the following passage from Thoreau's "Sounds" to the class:

> As I sit at my window this summer afternoon, hawks are circling about my clearing; the tantivy of wild pigeons, flying by twos and threes athwart my view,...a fishhawk dimples the glassy surface of the pond and brings up a fish; a mink steals out of the marsh before my door and seizes a frog by the shores;... (p. 387)

What is this passage describing? From where is it seen?

Write a passage describing the school yard as seen from the window of your room.

Example: Read the following passage from Thoreau's "Economy" to the class:

> I had already bought the shanty of James Collins... When I called to see it he was not at home. I walked about the outside, at first unobserved from within, the window was so deep and high. It was of small dimensions, with a peaked cottage roof, and not much else to be seen, the dirt being raised five feet all around as if it were a compost heap. The roof was the soundest part, though a good deal warped and made brittle by the sun. (p. 371)

Write a description of your school building as you first see it from far away, as you come closer, and as you enter it.

3. To understand that description may be conveyed through dialogue.

Example: Write a conversation between you and your mother when she tells you to clean up your room. Show what kind of person she is through what she says and the way she says it.

Example: Write a conversation between you and a friend as you try to interest him in a place you like to visit. (Zoo, swimming pool, park)

References

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STORIES AND PLAYS

Sixth Grade

EXPECTED READINESS

The child

... understands that description may be used in narration to convey the time of an action, the place in which an action occurs, the characters who participate in that action, and the action itself.

... understands that both narration and description are written from a point of view.

... understands that description may be conveyed through dialogue.

OBJECTIVES

The child will

... gain skill in describing as an observer from both a fixed point of view and a mobile point of view.

... gain skill in narrating from the point of view of a character.

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

1. To gain skill in describing as an observer from both a fixed point of view and a mobile point of view.

Example: The children write a description of the actions of a bird as seen from a window. Remind them that if the bird flies away, the description follows only as far as he can be seen from the window.

Example: The children describe people in an audience as seen when a camera sweeps, then stops, then sweeps again.

2. To gain skill in narrating from the point of view of a character.

Example: Ask the child to pretend that he is Flipper or Gentle Ben and to write about an experience from his viewpoint. Stress the importance of keeping the events within the scope of the animal's own actions and observations.

Example: The child pretends that he is a member of a group exploring a cave. Making use of dialogue between himself and his friends as he writes a story about the adventure.

Example: Each of the children pretends that he is a particular instrument in a band. He writes a story about the journey to a concert, the concert itself, and the journey back.

POETRY AS A WRITING FORM

Fourth Grade

EXPECTED READINESS

The pupil

... listens to poetry.

... uses pictorial language.

... participates in choral reading of poetry.

... has an initial understanding of poetry as a writing form.

OBJECTIVES

The pupil will

... increase his enjoyment and appreciation of varied types of poetry.

... increase his ability to use vivid language.

... expand his experience in choral reading.

... increase his understanding of poetry as a form of writing.

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

1. To increase enjoyment and appreciation of varied types of poetry.

Example: The teacher makes available many poems which can be read by the children. The teacher plans, also, for poetry to be read to children on frequent occasions.

Oral reading of poetry is planned first for enjoyment. It is planned, also, for the purpose of introducing a variety of styles, variety in rhythmic arrangements, and variety of content. Copies of the poems to be read are frequently given to the pupils so that they can see line arrangement, etc., as they hear the poem read. Suggestions for variety in poems:

"Those Who Go Forth Before Daylight," by Carl Sandburg (7)
"Freight Boats," by James S. Tippett (8)
"The Wilderness is Tamed," by Elizabeth Coatsworth (2)
"The Raggle, Taggle Gypsies," an old folk song (5)

Example: Read the words of a song as poetry and then present the same poem accompanied by the music.

Example: Poetry may be read with sound effects accompanying or inserted. Try making sound effects to go with "Spring Rain," by Marchette Chute (1), or "Indian Songs," by Louis Mertins (6).

2. To increase the ability to use vivid language.

Example: The teacher plans experiences to stimulate emotions as well as intellect. Play soft music, gay music, marching music, and describe the feelings aroused by each. Go to the school's furnace room. Watch the flames and describe them. Give bubble gum to the children. Ask them to describe the way it feels in one's mouth. Blow soap bubbles. Describe the way they look and the way they feel when they light on one's hand. Look at a bug through a microscope. Describe it.

As pupils describe an object or event, the teacher makes notes of particularly good phrases or statements. Later, these are written on chart paper as quotations and proper credit is given to the children quoted.

3. To expand experience in choral reading.

Example: The teacher selects poems which give opportunity for several reading arrangements. The teacher reads the poem first in order to establish phrasing and acquaintance with unfamiliar words. She suggests the first reading plan, and the poem is read once or twice by this plan. Then the teacher elicits other reading arrangements from children.

Example: Form a "verse choir" of high, low, and medium voices. Read "The Raggle, Taggle Gypsies" (5), with medium voices reading verses 1, 2, and 5; high voices reading verses 3, 6, and 8; and low voices reading verses 4, 7, and 9.

Example: Read "This is the House that Jack Built" (4), with solo parts repeated as a line is repeated and everyone reading in unison the final line of each verse.

Example: Read the longer version of "Old Mother Hubbard" (3), with high voices reading the situations and low voices reading the outcomes.

4. To increase understanding of poetry as a writing form.

Example: The teacher is sensitive to elements of poetry in writings of the children. Attention is called to these and a child's work is re-written as a poem.

Robert wrote a story which includes repetition of phrases, use of contrast, and personal reactions to his subject. His story may well be re-written in the form of a poem. The original story:

What I Think of Myself

> Well sometimes I think I'm nice. Sometimes I think I'm bad. Sometimes I think I'm crazy. Sometimes I think I'm dead. Sometimes I think I'm great. Sometimes I think I'm a hobo. Sometimes I think I'm tuff. Sometimes I think I'm brave. Sometimes I think I'm scared. Sometimes I think I like myself.

Sometimes I think I hate myself. That's what I think of myself.

Re-written as poetry:

What I Think of Myself

Sometimes I think I'm nice,
Sometimes I think I'm bad.
Sometimes I think I'm crazy,
Sometimes I think I'm dead.
Sometimes I think I'm tough,
Sometimes I think I'm brave,
Sometimes I think I'm scared.
Sometimes I like myself.
Sometimes I hate myself.
That's what I think of myself.

Example: Part of Janice's story could well be written in poetry form, the part in which her feelings about the cat are transmitted to the reader. The original story is this:

The First Time I Saw My Cat

One day we were at my grandfather's and grandmother's house. That was where I first saw him. He was all black and fuzzy. The kitten came stumbling to my sisters and I. The quietest little Thing you ever saw. He hadn't opened his eyes yet but it seemed he knew we were there. We asked mom could we take it home but she said we'd have to wait for a few weeks until he was old enough. We took him home. We had a big stuffed dog he thought it was his mother. Time went by and he grew fast. He also grew fatter. Now he is almost up to my elbow. He is blacker and fuzzyer. He is a good cat too!

A section of the story re-written:

The First Time I Saw My Cat

At my grandfather's house,
That was where I first saw him,
A black and fuzzy kitten.
He came stumbling
To my sisters and me,
The quietest little thing
You ever saw.
He hadn't opened his eyes yet,
But it seemed
He knew we were there.

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2. Coatsworth, Elizabeth. "The Wilderness is Tamed," in Elizabeth Coatsworth, Away Goes Sally, Macmillan Company. 1934.

3. Mother Goose. "Old Mother Hubbard," in Miriam Blanton Huber, Story And Verse for Children, Third Edition, Macmillan Company. 1965.

4. Mother Goose. "This is the House that Jack Built," in Miriam Blanton Huber, Story and Verse for Children, Third Edition, Macmillan Company. 1965.

5. Folk song, "The Raggle, Taggle Gypsies," in Miriam Blanton Huber, Story and Verse for Children, Third Edition. Macmillan Company. 1965.

6. Mertin, Louis. "Indian Songs," in Miriam Blanton Huber, Story and Verse for Children, Third Edition, Macmillan Company. 1965.

7. Sandburg, Carl. "Those Who Go Forth Before Daylight," in Carl Sandburg, Cornhuskers, Henry Holt and Company. 1946.

8. Tippett, James S. "Freight Boats," in James S. Tippett, "I Go A-Traveling", Harper and Brothers. 1929.

Illustrations not cited in the references were written by children and have not been previously published.

POETRY AS A WRITING FORM

Fifth Grade

EXPECTED READINESS

The pupil

... listens to poetry.

... purposefully uses pictorial language for effect.

... participates in choral reading.

... has an initial understanding of poetry as a form of writing.

OBJECTIVES

The pupil will

... increase his enjoyment and appreciation of poetry.

... increase his ability to use language for special effects.

... expand experiences in choral reading.

... increase his understanding of poetry as a writing form.

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

1. To increase enjoyment and appreciation of poetry.

Example: Many books of poetry are made available to children. The teacher frequently reads selections which have particular appeal for this age child. Suggestions:

"The Pied Piper of Hamelin," by Robert Browning (2)

"Git Along, Little Dogies," in John A. and Alan Lomax, Cowboy Songs and Other Frontier Ballads. (8).

"A Nautical Extravagance," by Wallace Irwin. (6)

Example: Plan times for pupils to read poetry to younger children of the kindergarten or first or second grade. Teams of three or four children select poems to be read and practice reading them before visiting the lower grade. Their selections for reading are checked by the teacher.

Example: Combine visual animation with oral reading of a poem. Group pupils in small groups to work out together ways of "showing" a poem as it is read by one group member. Later, the groups present their poems to the class. "The Caterpillar," by Christina Rosetti (10) is an easy one to plan.

Suggestion for visual animation: A box puppet stage contains stand-up cardboard of paper flowers. A "caterpillar" made of yarn is operated from above by strings, as a marionette. A stick-puppet frog is operated from below. A colored cellophane and wire bird is operated by strings from above. A cellophane and wire butterfly is also operated by strings. The puppet stage is lighted by shining the beam of a flashlight or a filmstrip projector into it from the front.

Other suggested poems for visual animation are these:

"Green Afternoon" by Frances Frost (4)
"Green Moth," by Winifred Wells (13)
"The Skunk" by Robert P. Tristram Coffin (3)
"Hallowe'en," by Harry Behn (1)

2. To increase ability to use language for special effects.

Example: The teacher leads the children in making nonsense verse, including alliteration. One pupil writes a line or two and passes it to another. The second adds to it, keeping in the same rhythm, and passes it back. The teacher begins this by writing on the board a sample such as this:

A little lame lizard
Went limping along a lane.

She asks, "What happened? What can we add?"

If the children are slow in responding she adds, "How about this as an ending:

A tender-hearted ladybug
Came bringing him a cane.

One or two other samples may be developed by the teacher and children together before the pairs of children begin to write on their own.

Example: Show nature films such as Spiders and Monarch Butterfly. Turn off the sound so that no explanation is heard. Ask pupils to describe things they see: (1) the slowness and carefulness of the spider building its web; (2) the richly colored monarch butterfly in caterpillar, chrysalis and adult stages.

Example: Divide class into groups for special assignments in describing sensory experiences. One group goes to the music room, listens to the sounds, and writes descriptions of the sound. A second group goes to the cafeteria to smell the aroma of lunch cooking. They write descriptions of the smells. A third group goes to the playground and touches five things. This group writes descriptions of textures found. A fourth group goes to the sidewalk to look away from the school. They write descriptions of five things seen. A fifth group stays in the classroom to taste lemon, peppermint, and popcorn. This group writes descriptions of tastes.

3. To expand experience with choral reading of poetry.

Example: Select a poem which may be read by several arrangements. Lead pupils' reading by one arrangement then elicit other reading plans from them. Lucy Sprague Mitchell's poem "It Is Raining" (9) is adaptable to many reading arrangements.

Example: After several experiences in choral reading guided by the teacher, by pupils themselves, by groups, devise plans and present choral readings to the class. Suggestions for pupil planning, independent of the teacher:

"A Goblinade," by Florence Page Jaques (7)
"Momotara," by Rose Fyleman (5)
"Raccoon," by William Jay Smith (11)

4. To increase understanding of poetry as a writing form.

Example: The teacher is sensitive to elements of poetry as they appear in the writing which children do. Frequently, children's prose is actually poetry written in prose form. When a teacher recognizes this and re-writes it, or guides the pupil in re-writing, the pupil sees poetry form evolving. Lisa's story and the teacher's re-writing it are illustrations:

A Flute

I own the most wonderful instrument in the world, a flute. It is shiny, shiny silver and when I play it it sparkles all over. Surely no instrument is as pretty as my flute. It makes a beautiful, light sound that seems to reach the clouds it is so high. It sounds like fairies playing together in their fairyland. I will always treasure my beautiful, wonderful, silver flute.

Re-written:

My Flute
I own the most wonderful instrument
in the world,
A flute.

It is a shiny, shiny silver,
And when I play it,
It sparkles all over.
Surely no instrument is as pretty as
My flute.

It makes a beautiful, light sound
That seems to reach the clouds
It is so high.
It sounds like fairies
Playing in their fairyland.
I treasure my beautiful, wonderful
Silver flute.

Example: After an exciting study in the social sciences in which children learn about people and a place through films, books, music, and art, they usually have a storehouse of impressions and understandings from which to write. Playing music of the land from disc or tape recording as background mood at the time of writing contributes to the pupils' reacting more keenly to his subject. Such writing frequently can be re-written as poetry. An illustration of this is seen in Mike's story (written as Hawaiian music was played) and the teacher's copying it in poetry form:

Having a Beach Party

Dancing in the sand. Having a beach party. Playing tag with the waves. Hawaiian dancing doing the hulu.

Swimming in the moonlight. The band is playing Hawaiian songs. Going skin-diving in the ocean. Surfboarding on a wave as high as a 3 story building. Going up higher and higher. Then you fall and roll in the water.

Then the sun comes up and the party is over. Everybody is going home.

"See you next time," yelled someone. "Good-by" I yelled.

Copied in poetry form:

Having a Beach Party

Dancing in the sand,
Playing tag with the waves,
Hawaiian dancers doing the hula,
Having a beach party.

Swimming in the moonlight,
Skin-diving in the ocean,
Surfboarding on a wave as high as a
   three-story building,
Going higher and higher,
Then falling and rolling in the water,
While the band is playing Hawaiian songs.

The sun comes up,
And the party is over,
Everybody is going home.
"See you next time," yelled someone.
"Good-by," I yelled.

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10. Rosetti, Christina G. "The Caterpillar," in Winifred Welles, Skipping Along Alone, Macmillan. 1931.

11. Smith, William Jay. "Raccoon," in William Jay Smith, Boy Blue's Book of Beasts, Little Brown and Company, Atlantic Monthly Press, 1956.

12. Welles, Winifred, "Green Moth," in W. Welles, Skipping Along Alone, Macmillan Company. 1931.

Illustrations not cited in the references were written by children and have not been previously published.

Films: Spiders, el-jh-sh, #275, 1 reel (black and white). EBF.

Monarch Butterfly, p. - el, #3008, 1 reel (color). SM.

These films may be secured from The Georgia State Film Library, Ben W. Hulsey, Manager, 121 Memorial Drive, S.W., Atlanta, Georgia 30303.

POETRY AS A WRITING FORM

Sixth Grade

EXPECTED READINESS

The pupil

... listens to poetry.

... purposefully uses pictorial language.

... participates in choral reading.

... has an understanding of poetry as a writing form.

OBJECTIVES

The pupil will

... increase his enjoyment and appreciation of varied types of poetry.

... increase his ability to use vivid language.

... expand his experiences in choral reading.

... increase his understanding of poetry as a form of writing.

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

1. To increase enjoyment and appreciation of varied types of poetry.

Example: Poetry is made available for children themselves to read.

Example: The teacher finds many opportunities to read poetry to children. Selections are made in terms of interest of content for this age child, variety in form, and variety in other elements of poetry. Suggestions for reading:

(a) Carl Sandburg's "American Yarns," (8) a collection of tall-tales,has no rhyme, but it does have rhythm.

(b) "The Sailor's Consolation," (3) by Charles Dibden, gives the point of view of a seaman about the dangers of living on land.

(c) Stephen Vincent Benét's poem, "The Mountain Whippoorwill," (2) tells a tale of a mountain boy in a fiddling contest. The poem shows Benét's way of varying line groupings (two-line stanzas, three-line, four-line, even a twenty-seven-line stanza) within a poem and keeping the rhythm. In fact, the rhythm, suggestive of "fiddle" music, increases in tempo as the fiddler fiddles faster. This poem illustrates well the fact that a poet uses words, line arrangement, rhyme and rhythm to achieve effect.

(d) "The Creation," (4) by James Weldon Johnson, an imaginatively told story of the world's beginning, is based on the Bible story. This story is very different from Benét's "Whippoorwill" in content and in rhythm, but it is very similar to Benét's in some ways. It, too, contains varied line groups or verse lengths. Like "The Whippoorwill," "The Creation" builds up in pace. Like Benét, Johnson uses a short concluding verse, a few carefully chosen words, to present the climax or the event toward which the whole poem has been building .

Looking at the lines of this poem as it is being read helps children to understand that a poet creates the form of his poem partially in terms of the movement of his message.

(e) "Phizzog," (9) by Carl Sandburg, is different in form, rhythm, tempo, and content from the poems listed above, yet it holds an interest of a personal nature for the sixth grade child.

(f) "Stop-Go," (1) by Dorothy Baruch, is an example of a writing form which should be seen as it is heard. The arrangement of lines suggests the line-up of automobiles at a traffic light. The tempo, achieved through word choice and line arrangement, is suggestive of stopped cars, then of their moving with the change of the traffic light.

Example: Read poems which have been translated from other languages. Suggestion: "The People of Tao-chou," by Po Chu-i (6).

2. To increase ability to use vivid language.

Example: Ask pupils to write words, phrases, or statements which picture to the reader the idea of softness, toughness, brittleness, loudness, stillness, etc.

Example: Ask pupils to select an object and write a description of it in such a way that readers are able to see it in their mind's eye and, also, know how the writer feels about it. Suggested objects for starters: a new, fuzzy sweater; an old baseball glove; the American flag; an alarm clock.

Example: Ask pupils to select an event and write a description about it in such a way that the reader can "see" it happening and, also, can know how the writer feels about it. Suggested events for starters: hitting a home run when the score is tied; playing in a piano recital; riding on a surf board; walking in the rain; knowing the answer to the questions asked of other people, but not knowing those asked you.

Example: Ask pupils to watch a very old person or a very young child. Write a description of this person, his manner of walking, the sound of his voice, his hands, his smile.

3. To expand experiences in choral reading.

Example: The teacher selects a poem, reads it to the class, and arranges for choral reading of the poem. After one or two readings by the teacher's arrangement, the pupils are asked to suggest a different plan for reading the same poem. "Antonio" by Laura E. Richards (7) is a good selection.

Example: To vary choral reading, experiment with several solo parts. A poem suited for this is "The Bagpipe Man" by Nancy Byrd Turner (10).

Example: "The Ballad of the Harp-Weaver," by Edna St. Vincet Millay (5), offers opportunity for two groups (high voices reading the stanzas containing the Mother's conversation, low voices reading the Son's thoughts). Pupils experiment with the reading to decide about the tempo, volume, and stress in the reading.

Example: Pupils may be grouped for selecting and arranging their own choral readings. Three or four "Verse Choirs" in the classroom plan and practice together, then present their choral readings to the whole class.

4. To increase understanding of poetry as a writing form.

Example: The teacher is sensitive to pupils' writings which contain elements characteristic of poetry. She calls attention to these and helps a child re-write his thoughts in poetry form. An illustration is a part of the last paragraph of Karl's story:

Glove for Gehrig

> Now let's see. Well,...I guess it all started back in the...uhh...Oh, well, the date seems to have slipped my mind. Anyway, I was sitting around with some of my friends in a store when this old man and woman started admiring me. Before I knew what was happening I was being wrapped in paper. Hours and hours of darkness went by. The next time I saw light I saw a small boy's face staring with amazement and delight. I learned that the boy's name was Lou and the older couple's names, peculiar as it might seem, were Mom and Dad.
>
> The next day Lou went down to the ball field where the older boys usually played. Though they usually never let him play they admired me and wanted to use me in the outfield. Lou was rather clumsy and couldn't do much in baseball and got hit several times with the ball. But this time he was doing better, probably because of pride over me, and when he was outfield he also showed improvement.
>
> He kept on improving and working hard. To Lou baseball came easy after that day. He managed to skip most of the hard spots. So together we rode, all the way to the top, and farther, he went into the hearts of all baseball fans.

The teacher comments on Karl's story and mentions the poetic quality of the ending; "We might re-write that last thought in poetic form. It expressed your feeling about Gehrig quite well. Look at it written this way"

The teacher re-writes Karl's concluding statements in this manner:

Together we rode,
All the way to the top,
And farther.
He went into the hearts
Of all baseball fans.

After reading the poem together the teacher and Karl consider titles for it, "A Glove Remembers Gehrig," "Lou Gehrig: Reflections of His Baseball Glove," "Lou Gehrig, As Told by his Glove."

Example: A teacher may find in a child's writing bits of fresh thinking and sensitive expression of those thoughts mixed with unrelated elements for the sake of rhyme. The teacher may guide the pupil to work further with the idea, eliminating everything except that which is most important. Cindy's writing illustrates this:

The Wind Am I

The wind am I
And what I do is clear to
the eye,
I blow the sands
And make big dunes
And blow all sorts of
things over the lands.

I am called a destructive
force
Because I blow away
the land of course,
But people do me harm,
too,
By stomping on me
And making me cry
boo, hoo.

I like to go soaring
through the air
And let people wonder
if I came from there.
I speak with a whistle
And fly like a thistle.

Yes, I am the wind
The great destructive
force
That blows the sands
Through all the lands.

Looking with Cindy at her poem, the teacher says something like this:

"Your poem shows the strength of blowing wind! That's good. I believe it would seem even stronger if you emphasize the idea of blowing sand since you have called the wind a 'destructive force'. One way to give emphasis to an idea is to remove all that can be left out. Read through your poem once or twice to see whether or not you can omit part of it. You might mark very lightly all the lines which do not tell of the wind's blowing the earth, then let me see what you have left."

Cindy's poem looks like this with noted omissions:

The Wind Am I

The wind am I
And what I do is clear to
the eye,
I blow the sands
And make big dunes
And blow all sorts of things
over the land
I am called a destructive
force
Because I blow away
the land (of course.)

But people do me harm,
too,
By stamping on me
And making me cry
boo, hoo.

I like to go soaring
through the air
And let the people wonder
if I came from there.
I speak with a whistle
And fly like a thistle.

Yes, I am the wind,
The great destructive force
That blows the sands
Through the lands.

Reading the poem and noticing the marked parts, the teacher agrees that many of those lines might be omitted. She adds, however: "I believe that you might use that third stanza--your words 'soaring' and 'whistle' help to tell the character of wind. I agree that the 'thistle line' is not needed. Perhaps you can substitute for it another line or two that tell about the wind's sounds--Why don't you work a little more on that third stanza and keep it? Don't worry if you don't have rhyme.

It is the rhythm that is important, anyway. This is growing into a good poem!"

Cindy's revised poem appears like this:

The Wind Am I

The wind am I.
I blow the sands
    And make the dunes.

I am called a destructive force
Because I blow away
    The land.

I like to go soaring by
And let the people wonder
    Where I came from.

I speak with a whistle,
Or with a whisper,
    Or with a roar.

Yes, I am the wind.
The great destructive force
That blows the sands
    Of all the lands.

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FACTUAL REPORTING

Grade Four

EXPECTED READINESS

The child

... uses a problem-solving form in reporting experiments.

... recognizes that opinion and ideas differ from fact.

... makes simple outlines for written work.

OBJECTIVES

The child will

... extend writing experiences through research on questions of interest.

... write factual reports from reading.

... learn to give simple directions.

... report science experiments in more detailed problem-solving form.

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

1. To extend writing experiences through research on questions of interest.

Example: Have a box called "What I want to find out." In this box let the children and teacher place questions to which they would like to have answers. A child looks in the box and chooses a question placed by someone else. He uses references to find the answer to the question and writes an answer to this question for the person asking it. The writer, the person who asked the question, and the teacher work together to improve the answer. The answers are filed in an Information Box and children use them for reference.

2. To write factual reports from reading.

Example: Children plan a series of questions to which they need answers. Each child assumes responsibility for answering one question. The answer is filed for reference in a folder of information available to class. Then, the children organize the information into a single report.

Example: A student secures information pertinent to work of the class, organizes it, and prepares a written report. He presents the information orally, writing key phrases from main ideas and difficult or new terms on the chalkboard. The report is filed for class reference.

3. To give simple directions.

Example: A child displays an object, such as a birdhouse, that he has constructed. He brings the same raw materials to class and directs one of his classmates in the construction of another birdhouse.

Example: A child tells how to cook a particular dish. He writes the recipe and directions for cooking on a chart. If it is possible, have a hot plate and the ingredients available for the children to prepare the item. Encourage giving explicit directions and following the recipe exactly.

4. To make reports of science experiments in more detailed form.

Example: The students write up class and individual science experiments telling: 1. The problem. 2. Known facts. 3. What I think will happen. 4. What I will do. 5. What I need. 6. What I did. 7. What happened. 8. Conclusions.

FACTUAL REPORTING

Grade Five

EXPECTED READINESS

The child

... does research and writes reports on questions of interest.

... gives simple directions.

... uses a more detailed form for reporting science experiments.

OBJECTIVES

The child will

... learn to outline with main idea and details.

... write stories with factual background.

... report research and experiments by problem-solving methods.

... develop ability to follow and to give complex directions.

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

1. To learn to outline main ideas and details.

Example: Each member of the class lists the main ideas and supporting details of a selection read in a science or social studies textbook. They supplement this information with information from other sources, and then arrange this in outline form. The students talk or write, following the outline.

2. To write stories with factual backgrounds.

Example: At Thanksgiving the children write an imaginary story telling what they did at the First Thanksgiving. As they are studying the westward movement, they tell about their imaginary trip west in a covered wagon. The children should be aware of the need for accuracy in the situations described and in the vocabulary used, and they should be encouraged to do additional research to make the story historically plausible.

3. To report research and experiments by problem-solving methods.

Example: Explain to the children that salts, including table salt, are compounds which are comprised of a metal and another element. Arrange for the group to perform an experiment to determine what metal is present in each of several salts. For the experiment, salts (i.e.; chlorides, nitrates, or sulfates) of potassium, calcium, strontium, and copper may be obtained from a drugstore; boric acid, which also is to be used, is available from the drugstore. Sodium chloride is ordinary table salt. (Copper sulfate, used at most water purification plants, may be obtained through a field trip to the water works as well as from the drugstore.) The rest of the equipment needed may be obtained from the high school science department if it is not on hand: a Bunsen burner; a 2-inch piece of platinum wire fused into a 5-inch piece of glass tubing; a glass test tube; HCl (hydrochloric acid); distilled water.

The problem under investigation is determining what metal is present in a salt solution. Hypothesize that different metals burn with different color flames. Give the children the following background data:

Metal (in salt)	Color of Flame
(1) Sodium	Yellow
(2) Potassium	Violet
(3) Calcium	Brickred

(4) Strontium	Crimson
(5) Barium	Yellow-green
(6) Boric acid	Yellow-green
(7) Copper	Emerald green

Prepare solutions of each salt in distilled water. Dip the platinum wire in one solution, then insert it in the non-luminous (non-yellow) flame of the Bunsen burner and observe the coloration of the flame. Clean the platinum wire after each test by heating the wire to redness, then dipping it into HCl in a glass test tube. Continue the procedure until all salts have been tested. Summarize the results of the experiment (i.e., solution 7 burned with an emerald green flame and so contains copper, etc.) Write-up the experiment under the following headings: Statement of the Problem, Hypothesis, Procedures, Results, Conclusions.

4. To develop ability to follow and give complex directions.

Example: Give children the directions for making a star or a snowflake design by cutting folded paper. The children attempt to follow the directions with no additional help from teacher or friends. When stars or snowflakes are displayed, allow those not having adequate reproductions to read the directions again step by step. Let them discover where their errors occurred.

Example: Each child prepares directions for making something and brings the needed materials to class. The children exchange directions and materials and make the products. They evaluate the adequacy of the directions and their own ability to follow directions.

FACTUAL REPORTING

Grade Six

EXPECTED READINESS

The child

... has some knowledge of how to outline with main idea and details.

... writes stories with factual background.

... reports research and experiments by problem-solving methods.

... has ability to give and follow more complex directions.

OBJECTIVES

The child will

... distinguish between biography and biographical fiction in reading and writing.

... distinguish between factual news reports and expressed opinions.

... learn to write news and to express opinions on important issues.

... refine method of reporting research and experiments.

... refine note-taking techniques for main ideas and details.

... make outlines for reports, readings.

... learn to distinguish facts that have been distorted or omitted to mislead the reader.

1. To distinguish between biography and biographical fiction in reading and writing.

Example: The class reads selections from Paul Revere by Esther Forbes and Johnny Tremain by Ester Forbes. Have them discuss the differences in the two books. Other books that may be read are Elizabeth Trevino's I, Juan de Pareja, Elizabeth Yates' Amos Fortune, Free Man, Robert Lawson's Ben and Me, and many good biographies. Use references to confirm biographical data and the authenticity of the setting.

2. To distinguish between factual news reports and expressed opinions.

Example: Select editorials and news articles from newspapers and magazines and read them with the children. Let children decide which are factual and which opinionated.

Example: Children describe some student in the room. Try to make this description omitting words which express opinion, such as: Mary is a pretty girl who wears her clothes neatly. Read the descriptions and pick out words which have a value judgment in them.

3. To write news and express opinions on important issues.

Example: The class puts out a newspaper once a month. The children report some news for the paper. They write an article for a column like "Sound Off" and tell what they think should be done about some school or local problem.

4. To refine method of reporting research and experiments.

Example: Children are ready now for reports of research following outline topics: The Problem, Hypotheses, Background Data, Procedure

(Experiment, Equipment, Procedure), Results, Conclusions, Generalizations, and Implications. Prepare a report in this form.

5. To refine note-taking techniques for main ideas and details.

Example: Students make reports on some topic of interest, such as religions of countries they are studying. References are listed on cards which can be arranged alphabetically to form a bibliography. On separate cards they write important ideas in good sentences. Details of any idea are written on other cards. After these are completed they can easily be arranged to make a report. The connecting sentences and thoughts can be written as the cards are compiled into a paper or oral report.

6. To make outlines for reports and speeches.

Example: Pupils plan speeches, oral and written reports, prior to presenting them to the class. They make an outline to establish relationships among ideas and continuity of presentation.

7. To read for the purpose of identifying distortion of facts to change meaning.

Example: Students bring in advertisements. Read these to see how many really tell something about the product or just say "100% more satisfying"--but not stating the basis of comparison. See if pictures of people who have lost weight are facing front one time and sideways the next. Study graph representations to see if these have small intervals to reduce change when great change is indicated.

Example: Create an incident that will cause the children to be interested in what is being said. For example, two teachers seem to have a disagreement in front of the group. Make a tape recording of this. The children write what they saw happen. They tell what was said. After these are read, play the tape to let them hear it again. Students compare to see if they recorded just what happened. How were their versions changed? (Be sure students understand this was planned). This experience can be used to illustrate how and why observers or witnesses may differ in the accuracy of their reports.

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THE DEVELOPMENT OF VOCABULARY

DEFINITION

Fourth Grade

EXPECTED READINESS

The child

... understands that words have meanings which can be told to others.

... defines by verbalization, with little need for illustration or dramatization.

... categorizes words and identifies non-members of a category.

OBJECTIVES

The child will

... recognize a word as a member of a meaning class.

... recognize levels of abstraction in word meaning.

... distinguish between figurative and literal language.

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

1. To recognize words as members of a meaning class.

Example: Put the items on the left into their corresponding meaning class listed on the right:

baseball
peas
pencil
Tom Sawyer
chicken

clothing
story
sport
writing tool
bird

shirt	vegetable
Star Spangled Banner	song

Discuss the meaning classes listed on the right. What other items might be included in the class labeled "clothing"? Lead pupils to see relationship between the item and the meaning class, that the item in the column on the left is just one of many similar items belonging to a meaning class--the similarity comes only as they are grouped in a larger meaning class. For example, a shirt and pants are not really alike except as they are both thought about as items of clothing.

Example: Use the words in the following list as meaning classes. Ask pupils to write three words naming items which belong in each meaning class. Write the first one with them as a sample:

Meaning Class	Items within the Meaning Class
food	bread, meat, cake
liquid	
people	
plants	
buildings	
music	

Compare listed items. Note that many items may be members of one meaning class. The membership is determined by the relationship between (1) the meaning of the class and (2) the meaning of the item.

Summarize by using the group of students in that room as an example: Each of you is a member of the fourth-grade class in our school. If I were to write as a meaning class the term "Fourth Graders at State Street School," how many items, or members, would be listed?

2. To recognize levels of abstraction in word meaning.

Example: Using a dime as a concrete object to look at and talk about, the teacher asks, "What is this?" She elicits and records such answers as money, ten cents, a dime, and a coin. Discussion results in the conclusion that one piece of money can be called by many names.

Following this, the teacher asks, "Which name from this list is the most specific? Which one can apply to a coin of this value and to nothing else?"

Discussion about each of the terms leads to conclusions about abstractness of many of the terms:

(1) Ten cents may refer to ten pennies, two nickels, one nickel and five pennies, or to one dime.

(2) Coin may refer to pennies, nickels, dimes, quarters, or half-dollars.

(3) Money may refer to paper money (one-dollar bill, five-dollar bill, etc.) and to all coins.

(4) Dime refers to one coin valued at 10¢.

The teacher re-writes these terms in the following order: dime, ten cents, coin, money. She says something like this: "I have written the word with the most specific meaning first and the word for the most abstract meaning last. Do you know why I am calling this a 'specific meaning'? Do you know why I'm calling this an 'abstract meaning'?" Discuss and generalize about the terms specific and abstract.

Follow with more experiences using the two terms. Rerrange the order of the words below showing levels of abstraction. Begin with the most specific term: (1) dessert, food, Jane's birthday cake; (2) transportation, Honda, motor vehicle, two-wheeled motor vehicles, land transportation.

3. To distinguish between figurative and literal language.

Example: The teacher writes two statements on the board:

He went to bed early.

He hit the hay early.

She asks pupils which statement is an accurate, true, and literal account, and which one used a figure of speech to give meaning. Discuss other figures of speech which have the same meaning. Men in the Navy often say "I'm going to hit the sack," or "He sacked out early." A Boy Scout might say "I'm going to hit the bunk."

Using the terms literal, figure of speech, and figurative in the context of the discussion, the teacher leads pupils toward an understanding of the terms.

The teacher writes other paired statements on the board and asks which one of the pair is an example of literal language and which is an example of figurative language:

The cow jumped high.

The cow jumped over the moon.

Father was upset when I broke the television set.

Father hit the ceiling when I broke the television set.

She has blue eyes and black hair.

Her eyes are like the sky and her hair is like a raven's wing.

She is as ugly as a witch.

She is very plain looking.

Mr. Jones has a mountain of money.

Mr. Jones is very wealthy.

After pupil disucssion of the paired statements and identification of figurative speech and literal language, the teacher asks them to help her write definitions of the terms literal language and figurative language.

DEFINITION

Fifth Grade

EXPECTED READINESS

The child

... understands that words have meanings which can be told to others.

... defines by verbalization, giving synonyms and using terms in contextual example.

... uses dictionary to locate definition.

... recognizes known words as members of meaning classes.

... understands levels of abstraction in word meaning.

... distinguishes between figurative and literal language.

OBJECTIVES

The child will

... recognize a word as a member of a meaning class.

... recognize levels of abstraction in word meaning.

... distinguish between personalized and non-personalized meaning.

... recognize literal and figurative language and use each in appropriate situations.

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

1. To recognize a word as member of a meaning class.

Words selected from contexts in various curricular areas or from current school events will be more meaningful to pupils.

Example: Write on the board the word tree, and ask pupils to add names of species of trees (pine, oak, poplar, apple, hickory, etc.). Review the fact that the word tree signifies a meaning class and that species of trees are members of that meaning class.

Follow with other samples. Label as headings:

Meaning class:	Items within meaning class:
furniture	bed, chair, desk, table, etc.
automobiles	
service men	
rocks	
minerals	
clouds	

Example: Together with pupils, determine a name which would denote any or all of the following items: needles, thread, cloth, scissors, pins (sewing materials).

Ask pupils to identify words signifying the meaning classes of the following groups of items:

(a) face cream, lipstick, powder;

(b) senator, representative, president;

(c) add, subtract, multiply, divide;

(d) equator, longitude, latitude, arctic circle;

(e) square, circle, rectangle, triangle.

Elicit from the pupils the generalization that meanings of the items within a meaning class are similar to each other only as each is related to the meaning class as a whole.

Example: From the following meaning classes determine items included in each class:

Meaning Class	Items
(1) flower	
(2) weather	
(3) ancestors	
(4) fuel	
(5) tool	

2. To recognize levels of abstraction in word meaning.

Example: Write on the board a sentence such as the following:

Joyce had a surprising adventure yesterday.

Ask pupils to write one sentence on paper telling what happened to Joyce. Compare the happenings.

Go back to the original sentence, underline the word adventure and talk about its abstractness as compared to the more specific terms used by pupils.

Write two or three more sentences containing abstract terms and discuss ways of changing them to state more specific meaning:

Come to see me sometime.

He was punished because of misbehavior.

Merie bought art supplies at the book store.

Draw conclusions about the fact that our language allows us to speak in general, abstract terms or in specific, concrete terms. Determine occasions when concrete, specific terms might be more desirable. Select occasions when the abstract term would be more desirable.

Would your father be satisfied with this statement from your mother, "I bought some clothes today"? Why or why not?

Would you be satisfied with this statement from me, "We will go out to the playground in a little while"? Why or why not?

Suppose you answer the telephone just as you and your family are leaving to go to the movies. Everybody else goes on to the car. You listen to your friend talk, "This morning I bought a pup tent, a sleeping gab, a canteen, hiking shoes, shorts, a compass, and a flashlight. I will be ready to go on the camping trip with the Scouts next week." Would it have suited you better had your friend been less specific, had he said, "I bought camping supplies"? Why?

Example: Ask a pupil to write on the board his home address. Continue asking "Where is that?" adding names signifying larger geographic areas. The result will be something like this: 420 Oak Street, Athens, Georgia, United States of America, North America, Western Hemisphere, Earth, Solar System, Milky Way galaxy.

Help pupils to understand that any one of these locations tells where Tommy lives. If a boy in France wrote to Tommy, how much of this address would he need? Why? Suppose a Martian wrote to Tommy, how would he address the letter? Why?

Draw conclusions about the fact that each of these terms is a specific name for an area. The size of the area indicated changes, but the names themselves are specific, signifying only the space within it and no more.

Which part of the address includes only Tommy's house? Which parts of the address might also include your home and mine? Which parts would include all the citizens of the United States? Which part of Tommy's address might we describe as the most general or the most abstract?

3. To distinguish between personalized and non-personalized meaning.

Example: The teacher writes on the board a word such as dog and then writes both personalized and non-personalized meanings:

A dog is a carnivorous domesticated mammal of the canine family.

A dog is man's best friend.

A dog is a playful animal.

A dog is a vicious brute.

A dog is a pest.

Point out that people sometimes show their feelings about a thing when they are defining it. In which of the definitions are feelings about a dog shown? In which are no personal feelings shown?

Follow with other samples:

house -- a man's castle
-- home
-- a building in which to live
-- a dirty pigpen

tree -- a thing to climb
-- a shelter from the sun
-- a woody plant
-- a place from which to hang a swing

Lead the children to generalize that the use of figurative language helps one to show his feelings and helps another to know what his feelings are.

Test the generalization by examining the following situations: Tom's best friend won the race in which Tom himself was competing. Tom said, "You rat! How did you stretch yourself out so?" Do you think Tom was angry? Did his friend mind being called a rat? Could we call this personalized language?

4. To recognize literal or figurative language and use each in appropriate situations.

Example: Write on the board the following statements:

The sun rises in the east.

The earth rotates in an easterly direction.

Decide with the pupils which statement is literal and which is figurative. Which would be appropriate as a statement in a science report?

Examine other sets of statements:

(a) George Washington was the first President of our country.

George Washington was the father of our country. Which statement is literal? figurative? Which statement could be used by a historian? Why would the other not be used?

(b) The people in this county are dead with malaria.

Seventy-five per cent of the people in the county have malaria. Which statement is literal? Which figurative? Which would be used by the County Health Department? Why?

(c) He saved money and bought a car.

He pinched pennies and bought a dream boat.
Which of these statements is literal language? Which is figurative? Which statement would likely have been made by an envious teen-ager? Why?

(d) "There was an old woman who lived in a shoe.
She had so many children she didn't know what to do."

An elderly lady with several children lived in a very small house. Which of these statements is literal? Which figurative? Which is probably a statement in imaginative writing, when the writer is entertaining his audience?

(e) "There he was behind the counter -- a curious, sallow, dark man, with one ear larger than the other and a chin like the toe-cap of a boot."

"There he was behind the counter -- a sallow, dark man, with one ear larger than the other and a large, strong chin." One statement was taken from H. G. Wells, "The Magic Shop." Which one? Why do you think Mr. Wells used figurative language "a chin like a toe-cap of a boot"?

In conclusion, guide pupils into recognizing that in accurate, factual writing (science, history, reports, etc.) literal language is used. In story or poetry writing, figurative language is often used. Stress the fact that either literal or figurative language is good if it is appropriate to the writing situation.

Assignment for individual work: Find two examples of literal language from a newspaper reporter's writing. Transpose these into figurative language as they might be used in a fictional story, a mystery or a romantic story.

Find two examples of figurative language in literature or from listening to others talking. Transpose these into literal language.

DEFINITION

Sixth Grade

EXPECTED READINESS

The child

... understands that words have meanings which can be told to others.

... defines by verbalization, seldom needing contextual example.

... recognizes appropriate definition from multiple dictionary listings.

... recognizes words as members of meaning classes.

... identifies literal and figurative language.

... has some understanding of personalized and non-personalized language.

OBJECTIVES

The child will

... understand that personal experiences give special meanings to words.

... develop and test definitions.

... recognize levels of abstraction in word meaning.

... begin to distinguish between denotation and connotation.

... recognize literal and figurative language and use each as appropriate in his writing.

... identify and use clues which aid in determining word meanings: structural clues, contextual clues, word-placement clues, graphic-symbol clues.

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

1. To understand that personal experiences give special meanings to words.

Example: Write this sentence on the board: "We had pecan pie for lunch." Discuss the meaning of the word pie as it was used by each of the following speakers:

(1) A bride who had never cooked pie before in her life. This one burned on the outside and was still uncooked on the inside.

(2) The husband of a very good cook.

(3) Yourself.

(4) An old man who had just had his teeth pulled.

Discuss the fact that in each instance the speaker had a very recent personal experience with the referent of the word pie and that this experience influenced his meaning of the word.

Suppose a South Seas Islander who had never eaten pie heard this statement. Would he be able to visualize the object? What could the speaker do to give him clearer understanding?

Follow with one or two experiences with meaning: "We traveled part of the way by boat." Discuss the meaning of the word boat as it was used by the following speakers:

(1) A Boy Scout recalls a trip down a swift river by canoe. He helped to carry the canoe on the overland hike to and from the river.

(2) A man touring the United States went down the Mississippi by steamboat.

(3) A U. S. Marine tells his wife about maneuvers in which he used a pontoon.

(4) A lady tells about her trip to Venice.

Discuss the fact that not only were there personal feelings associated with the term boat as these speakers used it, but the word itself, in this case, referred to various types of boats.

Would a listener know just from the speaker's words that he traveled in a canoe? in a steamboat? in a pontoon? in a gondola? How would the listener know? Elicit from the pupils, or explain to them, that the listener (reader) must have had some previous association with these terms or he would not know.

Another sample: What did each person mean by the word ferrule in the statement, "The ferrule needs to be replaced?"

(1) an art teacher

(2) a garage mechanic

(3) an electrician

Ask the pupils if they can visualize the referent for the word ferrule. Then ask how they can find out the meaning.

Lead pupils to form generalizations about meaning and write their generalizations on the board. They will likely be of this nature:

(1) A word has meaning to the user (speaker/writer) in terms of the associations the user has had with the word's referent.

(2) A word has meaning to a recipient (listener/reader) in terms of the recipient's associations with the word's referent. These associations may be quite different. The recipient may have had no previous association with the word or with the word's referent.

(3) Commonality in word meaning may be established through defining.

2. To develop and test definitions.

To develop skill in defining, the pupil needs opportunities to state a term used as the name of an object or process and to identify the genus and *differentia* of the object or process signified by the term. Experiences such as the following may be planned:

Example: The teacher displays a milk bottle, a soft drink bottle, a perfume bottle, and a medicine bottle. She asks pupils to give her a general name which could be used to refer to any one of these objects. She elicits the term *bottle*.

Writing the term *bottle* on the board she asks the pupils to tell her what a bottle is. Answers given by the pupils are written in two columns:

bottle	a jar	which holds liquids;
	a thing	made of glass;
	a container	has a stopper or a cap;
		taller than it is wide;

Above the word *bottle* the teacher writes: *word*, *term*, *name* and explains that any one of these may identify the written symbol *bottle*. Illustrating with context, she holds one of the bottles and says, "This object is represented by the *word* 'bottle.' We may say that the object is represented by the *term* 'bottle,' or the name 'bottle.' Each would be correct. Why?"

Above the second column, the teacher writes class and category, then asks the pupils why these terms are used here. She reviews from previous grades the idea of words belonging to word classes: A bottle is one kind of container; it is a specific class of objects belonging to the more general class of objects referred to as "containers."

Now she introduces a new term, *genus*, and writes it along with *class* and *category*, explaining that, in defining a word, its *genus* or *class* is given.

Finally, attention is called to the third column and the teacher explains that, in this part of a definition we list the characteristics of a bottle that make it different from other types of containers. This listing is called the *differentia*. This term is written above the third column. Now, the work on the board appears in this form:

term name word	genus category class	differentia describing characteristics
bottle	a jar a thing a container	which holds liquids; made of glass; has a stopper or cap; taller than it is wide.

The teacher asks the pupils to refine the definition -- to decide which word under the heading *genus* is the most appropriate, and to decide how the *differentia* may be made more accurate. Revised, the definition reads "bottle -- a container for holding liquids; made of glass, plastic, ceramics, or the like; usually has a stopper or cap for tight closing; often taller than it is wide." The definition may be compared with a dictionary definition.

Follow this by asking pupils to select three objects in the classroom, write the *term* which signifies each object, the *genus* to which the object belongs, and the *differentia* appropriate to this particular species of the genus. Give help as needed. Such work is not a test, but is individualized extension of earlier group work.

Example: After understanding of the terms *term*, *genus*, and *differentia* is established as described above, experiences should be planned for defining terms other than names of concrete objects. The following experiences may be planned:

The teacher asks the class to observe the action performed by a certain child and think of a word which stands for or signifies that action. She whispers to one pupil these directions: "Hop across the room." Some other pupil is asked to write on the board the word which signifies such action. Others check him. Together the teacher and pupils decide upon the genus and differentia appropriate and accurate for defining the term hop. These may be written on the board and so labeled by a pupil.

Follow this with more defining of action terms. Elicit from children other words which signify action of some sort. In each case, discuss and write on the board the genus and the differentia (an call them by these names!) which define the term.

Example: From experiences such as those listed above, move toward constructing definitions for more abstract terms such as honesty, democracy, hunger, happiness, etc. Such work may be begun with examining a word met in literature read by or to the pupils: "Abraham Lincoln was respected for his honesty."

The teacher copies the statement on the board and says, "Let's define the term honesty. What is honesty?" She writes pupil responses on the board as they give them:

Honesty -- not lying or cheating
doing right
the way good people do
obeying laws
like the good guy on T.V.

Reading aloud the pupil responses, the teacher remarks, "You seem to be saying that honesty has something to do with the way people behave themselves. Is that right? Could we say that honesty is a kind of human behavior? What are some other kinds of behavior?"

The teacher re-writes the definition using her words and those of the pupils: "Honesty is a kind of human behavior which is characteristic of people who live right, people who are opposed to lying or cheating."

Pupils are asked to identify the genus and the differentia within the definition.

Definitions of other abstract terms are constructed by pupils and teacher thinking together.

Example: After much experience with defining, suggest that the pupils try an experiement to see how various people define. See if meaning expands as people grow older and have more experience or more associations with a term. Form committees of two or three pupils each (one to question, one or two to take notes of answers). Committees interview (1) a first grade pupil, (2) a second-grader, (3) a third-grader, (4) a fourth-grader, (5) a fifth-grader, (6) the school principal, (7) a county agent. At each interview an apple is whown and questions are asked, "What is this?" "What is an apple?"

When committees return with notes from the interviews the noted answers are examined in terms of the experiment. Conclusions are drawn about reasons for meaning expanding as people live longer and learn more. (The county agent is only a suggestion. In urban areas some other person may be selected. A light bulb may be the sample object and the non-school person interviewed may be an electrician.)

Noted answers may also be tested for accuracy and appropriateness of genus and differentia included.

3. To recognize levels of abstraction in word meaning.

Example: Rearrange the following terms in order of abstractness. Place the most abstract term last:

(1) clothing, dresses, school dresses, things to wear, new school dress. (Rearranged: new school dress, school dresses, dresses, clothing, things to wear)

(2) shoes, footwear, Keds, tennis shoes. (Rearranged: Keds, tennis shoes, footwear)

(3) shelter, Mr. Smith's house, brick house, house, (Rearranged: Mr. Smith's house, brick house, house, shelter)

(4) forestry products, paper, notebook paper, pulpwood. (Rearranged: notebook paper, paper, pulpwood, forestry products)

(5) minerals, natural resources, silver, currency, dime. (Rearranged: dime, currency, silver, minerals, natural resources.

Discuss occasions in which the broad, general, or more abstract terms would be suitable and occasions when the less abstract, or more specific, terms would be more appropriate.

For independent follow-up work ask pupils to locate in library books they are reading two terms, one very specific, one very abstract. Copy each term and, with each, write other words of the same meaning class illustrating more or less abstractness. Try to determine the author's reason for selecting the particular word he used.

Example: Write on the board the following terms: October, 20th century, 1966, October 10, A.D., 10:00 a.m.

With the pupils, decide which term specifies the most specific moment in time. Rearrange terms in order of specificity: 10:00 a.m., October 10, October, 1966, 20th century, A.D.

Check work by asking if each successive term includes that period of time designated by the term listed before it and other periods of time.

Follow with experiences in arranging whole statements in order, very specific time to a general period of time:

(1) Columbus landed in America on October 12, 1492.

(2) Columbus landed in America about five centuries ago.

(3) Columbus landed in America in the fall of 1492.

(4) Columbus landed in America in the fifteenth century.

(Order: No. 1, No. 3, No. 4, No. 2)

Look at the statements again. Did the functional words on and about help in determining order of exactness of time? How did they help?

Examine other functional words. In the following sentences decide which underlined word denotes specificity and which denotes generality of direction:

He walked to town.

He walked toward town.

Which underlined word denotes specificity of location?

The painting is on the table.

The painting is over the table.

Call attention to the fact that sometimes the functional word does not help in deciding generality or exactness:

My bracelet is in the dresser drawer.

My bracelet is in the bedroom.

My bracelet is in the house.

Which of these sentences is most specific in stating the location of the bracelet? What words in the sentence help you determine the specificity or abstractness of location?

Draw conclusions about the need to examine all available clues for determining meaning.

4. To distinguish between denotation and connotation.

Denotation refers to the most direct and specific meaning of a word. Connotation refers to implied meaning, additional meaning gathered from some particular use of a word or combination of words.

From illustrations such as those below, develop an understanding of the terms denotation and connotation.

Example: Write and discuss sentences:

(1) "Just one minute," said the scientist as he explained the exposure time of a germ experiment.

(2) "Just one minute," said the lady as she left the telephone to answer the doorbell.

(3) "Just one minute," Daddy said as someone rattled the bathroom door while he was shaving.

(4) "Just one minute," said the cook as she gave directions for soft-boiling eggs.

In which of these situations does the word minute specify an exact amount of time? How do you know? In which situations did the speaker use the word to indicate a brief amount of time but, very likely, not an exact amount of time? How do you know? Conclude: Past experiences with situations in which a word is used equips one to know whether the word is used according to its exact, precise meaning or with implied meaning. We refer to exact meaning as denotation and additional implied meaning as connotation. In sentences (1) and (4) the word minute is denotative in meaning. In sentences (2) and (3) the word minute is connotative.

Example:

(1) "Boo!" said the mother to her baby.

(2) "Boo!" yelled the crowd at the ball game.

What does the term boo mean? How do you know? Conclude: In both sentences boo is an exclamation denoting feeling. In sentence (1) boo connotes happy playfulness. In sentence (2) boo connotes angry dissatisfaction.

Example:

(1) "Raw?" questioned the mineral expert.

(2) "Raw?" asked the cook as she read a new recipe.

(3) "Raw?" the store manager asked about a new clerk.

What does the term raw mean in each situation? In which situations is the term denotative? In which is it connotative?

Draw conclusions about connotative meaning being personalized meaning, and denotative being non-personalized meaning.

5. To recognize literal and figurative language and use each as is appropriate in his writing.

Example: Write on the board groups of sentences. Identify literal and figurative language. Draw conclusions about the meaning of each:

(1) "That's a smart chick," the poultry man observed as he watched a young brood.

(2) "That's a smart chick," said the boy as he watched a good-looking young girl.

Example: Read Carl Sandburg's poem, "Fog".

Identify the metaphors used by Sandburg. Compare this with the statement below:

There was fog in the harbor, but it soon disappeared.

Draw conclusions as to the reasons for each writer's choice.

Example: Discuss the language used by sports announcers in radio or television programs"

The Cubs won by a landslide.

The Braves inched their way to victory.

Ask how the metaphors landslide and inched help one to understand the total scores of these two winning teams. Call to pupils' attention the fact that figurative reporting catches the interest of the listener. Add this idea: the listener will likely want literal reporting, too. Ask pupils to re-write these statements using literal language.

6. To identify and use clues in order to determine meaning.

Clues to the full meaning of a word may be found within the word itself: structural clues (ending, prefix, suffix, archaic spelling, spelling for effect in such instances as dialect or advertising) and graphic symbolic devices (capitalization, italics, bold print).

Other clues to a word's meaning may be found outside the word: meaning as implied by the word's position in a sentence, or meaning as related to meaning of other words in the context.

Guided experiences in studying meaning clues and thus determining more complete meaning of a term may be planned according to the examples below. Pupils' spoken language or selections from literature they are reading may furnish material from which to work. Beginning with simple known words and moving to more complicated and less well known words is a logical order.

Example: Write on the board a sentence such as this: That is an untruthful statement. Discuss the meaning of the root word. Now does the meaning of the root word change when the suffix -ful is added? How does this altered meaning change when the prefix -un is added?

Continue study of other words in context: unbaked, disjointed, prefix, national, disapprovingly, etc. Draw generalizations about meaning being changed with the addition of an ending, a prefix, a suffix, or combinations of these. Review the fact that these additions are called "structural changes" because they are part of the structure, or the make-up, of the word.

Example: What is the meaning of the word bank in each of the following sentences?

(a) I put my money in the bank.

(b) The river overflowed its bank.

(c) I have a piggy bank.

(d) My father works at the First National Bank.

(e) You can bank on John doing the right thing.

(f) The leaves were banked against the garage.

(g) He is a bank clerk.

How do you know those meanings? What things give you clues to meaning? Look at sentence (a), does the word money give you a clue? Does the placement in the sentence, coming after the, give you a clue?

Look at sentence (d), does the capital letter give you a clue?

In sentence (e), does the fact that bank is used with the word can give you a clue?

In sentence (f), does the -ed give you a clue?

In sentence (g), does the placement of the word give you a clue?

Example: In the following sentences determine the meaning of lumber and words derived from lumber. Use context clues, position in sentence, structural clues, symbolic graphic devices, etc., to help:

(a) The heavily loaded cart lumbered down the road.

(b) Mark's father is in the lumber business. He has been a lumberer for years.

(c) Mark worked three years as a lumberjack.

(d) He was lumbering when I first knew him.

(e) Pine lumber is less expensive than oak lumber.

(f) Turn right at a neon sign flashing the word *lumber*.

Example: Determine the meaning of *black* and words derived from *black*:

(a) Bring me a sheet of *black* paper.

(b) Jerry *blacked* out when he fell.

(c) The future looked *black* to the weary settlers.

(d) Her *black* hair is her most distinctive feature.

(e) Wash your hands well. Don't *blacken* the towel.

(f) Mr. *Black* lives on our street.

(g) The stone is blackish in color.

(h) The *black* widow's bite is very poisonous.

(i) Just before the storm the clouds threatened *blackly* and, streaks of lightning flashed.

(j) He rode in the *Black* Maria.

Example: In the following sentences determine the meaning of the word *side* and words derived from *side*. Look for context clues, position of the word in the sentence, structural clues, symbolic graphic devices, etc.:

(a) I have a pain in my *side*.

(b) This *side* of the box is painted red.

(c) Pedestrians stay on the left *side* of the road, facing on-coming traffic.

(d) Susan upheld her *side* of the argument quite well.

(e) John's *side* won the volleyball game.

(f) Gail looks like her mother's *side* of the family.

(g) His *side* remarks had more meaning than his main speech.

(h) Joe *sided* with Jim in the argument.

(i) Jill never takes *sides* in disagreements.

(j) In the football game both *sides*' scores were high.

(k) The player was off*side* when the whistle blew.

(l) The box is so full it has become lop-*sided*.

(m) The game was so one-*sided* it was not very interesting.

Example: In the following sentences determine the meanings of *report* and words derived from report. Look for context clues, placement in the sentence, structural clues, and symbolic graphic devices, etc.:

(a) Mary's *report* on climatic conditions of China was well prepared.

(b) John *reported* on the geography of China yesterday.

(c) Who will *report* on the economic conditions?

(d) The news *reporter* has a clear and pleasant voice.

(e) Our school patrol *reported* that pupils are more careful about boarding buses then they were last month.

(f) The robbery was *unreported* for three days.

(g) You will find that law is described in Coke's *Reports*.

Example: Write on the board a list of words such as these:

stay
saw
boot
turn
water
flat
fancy
order
capital
break
bar
act

Ask pupils to select one of the words as "his word." Try using the word or a derivative of it in various ways:

(1) so that the word's structure helps to carry the meaning.

(2) so that the position of the word in the sentence helps to carry the meaning.

(3) so that the context of the sentence helps to give the meaning.

(4) so that some symbolic graphic device helps to give meaning.

Example: Discuss methods writers use to indicate a speaker's intonation. Decide how the voice sounds in the following:

No!
No?
No.

What symbolic devices are used to help carry the speaker's meaning?

Add graphic symbols to the following to indicate voice intonation and thereby give more complete meaning:

She's married (The speaker is surprised that this particular girl is married.)

She's married (The speaker thought she was single.)

Fire (The speaker wonders whether this is the moment to shoot his gun.)

Fire (An order given by the army captain.)

Fire (An answer to the question, "What is combustion?")

Draw conclusions about the many, many ways writers use to help give complete meaning to the terms they use. Review and list these: structure of the word itself, context of sentence, placement within sentence, symbolic graphic devices, etc.

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FIGURATIVE LANGUAGE

Fourth Grade

EXPECTED READINESS

The child

... recognizes and enjoys personification, exaggeration, and simile in literature.

... uses figures of speech with some understanding.

OBJECTIVES

The child will

... understand the use of metaphor as figurative language.

... identify metaphorical language in literature.

... use both figurative and literal language and identify suitable occasions for each.

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

1. To understand metaphor as figurative language.

Example: The teacher writes sentences such as the following on the board:

(1) The highway was a ribbon in the moonlight.

(2) His footprints wove a pattern in the wet cement.

(3) His eyes were glued to the page.

(4) The pianist's fingers tripped across the keys.

Pupils find the two things that are compared in each sentence. They discuss such questions as: How might a highway and a ribbon or eyes and glue be related? What part of our body usually trips? Children think of the literal meanings of the sentence and then draw a picture illustrating the literal meaning of one of the sentences. The children soon find that the pictures show funny situations, while figuratively the sentences do not show any humor. Line drawings make illustrations similar to cartoons.

Example: The teacher writes sentences which include metaphors on strips of paper. Each child picks a sentence from a box without showing it to the other children. After each child has picked a sentence, he draws a picture to illustrate the literal meaning of the metaphor in the sentence selected. When the children finish, they place their drawings around the room. As the teacher reads each sentence aloud, the children pick the drawing that seems to illustrate the sentence.

2. To identify metaphorical language in literature.

Example: The teacher reads the poem "Falling Leaves" by Patricia Hubbell. What are the leaves compared to in this poem? What words and phrases does the writer use to show us that the leaves are like puppets? Have you ever seen a pile of dry leaves in the fall or a puppet hanging limply? Who is the puppeteer?

Example: The teacher introduces the books Time of Wonder by Robert McCloskey and Miracles on Maple Hill by Virginia Sorenson. Both are rich in figurative language, especially metaphors. Selected passages from these books are read to the children to help them gain a feeling for highly descriptive metaphorical language.

3. To understand that both figurative and literal language are useful and to identify suitable occasions for each.

Example: The teacher reads a simple folk tale such as The Elves and the Shoemaker to the class and asks them to listen for figurative language. They will find few obviously examples of figurative language in this tale. Explain that the story is a simple one because the common people handed it down by word of mouth for many years before it was ever written down. Have the children look through other folk tales or collections of folk tales and find figures of speech. They will find that the language of the folk tale is generally simple and literal.

As a follow-up activity, the teacher reads aloud the chapter entitled "Kate and the Gypsies" from The Good Master by Kate Seredy, which consists of both dialogue and descriptive passages. The children listen closely for figurative language. They discuss why the descriptive passages contain figurative language, while the dialogue is composed of only literal language.

Example: The teacher introduces the informational book by Herbert Zim, What's Inside of Me? Children consider why the language used by the author is precisely literal. They compare the language of Zim's book with a story that they are currently reading.

Example: The teacher reads the poem "The Cat" by Mary Britton Miller aloud to the children. This can be used as an example of poetry that contains little figurative language but is nevertheless a good description of a cat waking up and stretching. She reads the poem "Dandelion" by Hilda Conklin, which is rich in personification. The class contrasts these two poems.

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FIGURATIVE LANGUAGE

Fifth Grade

EXPECTED READINESS

The child

... identifies literal and figurative language.

... recognizes the use of personification, exaggeration, simile, and metaphor in oral communication and in literature.

... understands and uses the terms personification, exaggeration, simile, and metaphor.

OBJECTIVES

The child will

... extend his understanding of the nature and use of figurative language.

... understand metonymy as a figure of speech, recognizes the use of metonymy in literature, and use the term metonymy.

... recognize appropriate occasions for using figurative language and for using literal language.

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

1. To extend understanding of the nature and use of figurative language.

Pupils compare figurative language as used in poetry and in prose. They read descriptions of two kinds of workmen, the blacksmith in Longfellow's "The Village Blacksmith" (poetry), and the riveter in "Riding the Girders" (prose). They identify the figures of speech which are used to intensify the picture of the workman and his work in each selection.

Example: Pupils write a sentence or paragraph including a figure of speech, based on suggestions such as:

The lady's hat looked ________________

The angry dog __________________

Some shiny beetles __________________

From the top limb of the tree I fell _______________

The class discusses the imagery achieved, and identifies the figures of speech used.

Example: Pupils listen to a sports report on television or radio, and identify and classify the figures of speech used. They explain or "translate" the figurative language.

Example: Pupils interview a young child and record his speech on tape as he describes something he has eaten. He asks the child such questions as: What do you like best to eat? What do you like least of all? What is it like? What does it look like? How does it taste? How does it feel in your mouth?

From the tape, the pupil will identify and classify the figures of speech used by the young child. Tapes and analyses are shared with the class.

2. To understand metonymy as a figure of speech, recognize the use of metonymy in literature, and use the term metonymy.

Example: The teacher writes on the board several sentences to illustrate:

(1) The hungry man sat down to a good table.

(2) Mr. Jones spent the evening reading Shakespeare.

(3) The angry man demanded action by City Hall.

(4) The question of war was finally decided by the White House.

(5) The Health Department gives free immunization shots.

Call attention to the underlined words or word groups. The class discusses questions such as: Did the table itself satisfy the hungry man? What does the word table imply? A person cannot actually read another person (Shakespeare). What does the use of Shakespeare's name imply in this statement? City Hall, the White House - buildings - can take no action. What is implied by these names? Who will take the action? Who finally decided the question of war?

The pupils generalize from these examples. In each of these statements the speaker used the name of one thing for that of something else with which is associated. The "play" with name words--using the broader, more inclusive term for the single concrete term--is a figure of speech called metonymy. It allows the speaker to get across his meaning and, at the same time, imply more. The word table in the statement "The hungry man sat down to a good table" implies an abundance of food and drink, second or thind servings, and choices of many items.

In this statement, "The Health Department gives free immunization shots," the speaker might have said, "The nurse gives free shots." That would be more literal, because the "Department" does not handle the needle. By using metonymy, however, the speaker implies much more: The nurse who gives the shots is employed by the public to render a service to the public. Immunization shots are some of the services.

Example: Pupils find examples of metonymy in such sentences as these:

Watching his children at play, Mr. Jones said, "There are my tax deductions."

Watching the losing football game the coach remarked, "There goes the state championship."

At the ship-launching ceremony the Queen of England said: "The Crown wishes you Godspeed."

Looking at the blossoming peach trees the farmer said, "This looks like a good year."

Joe stopped me and said, "If you're going for milk, bring me a glass, too."

This last illustration allows the pupil to extend his understanding of _metonymy_ by the generalization that it uses the name of the container to represent the contents.

3. To recognize appropriate occasions for using figurative language and for using literal language.

Example: Pupils examine news stories. They search for figurative language used in headlines and contrast it with the literal language in the account of the event. They discuss why figurative language is often useful for a headline, and why literal language is required for the body of the news story. Could the plan be reversed?

Example: Pupils listen to commercials on television or radio, and collect examples of figures of speech used, such as "whiter than white" as exaggeration, "Join the Dodge _rebellion_" as a use of metonymy. They discuss the purpose of advertising and the effectiveness in the achievement of that purpose by the use of figurative language.

Example: Pupils read a recipe from a cookbook and try to re-write it using figurative language. Results are reported to the class and result in consideration of suitability of writing to its purpose.

Literal directions for playing a game are rewritten using figurative language. Pupils refer to the uses of figures of speech in the sports reports in newspapers. Pupils who are familiar with the specialized dialect used by sports reporters and fans will be able to include some figurative terms in directions. Compare the comprehension by pupils from reading directions using specific literal language with the comprehension from reading directions using figurative language.

Pupils compare the purpose of writing directions with the purpose of writing reports of action already performed. They discover that writing for the purpose of informing the reader how he is to act differs from writing for the purpose of description in reporting actions already performed, when the reader is expected only to enjoy the description.

The teacher, by discussion and questioning, helps pupils to arrive at the generalization that the purpose of writing, the intended reader, and his relation to the content are considered by the writer in choosing language which is precise and literal or descriptive and figurative.

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FIGURATIVE LANGUAGE

Sixth Grade

EXPECTED READINESS

The child

... identifies and differentiates between literal and figurative language.

... recognizes and uses personification, exaggeration, simile, metaphor, and metonymy, and uses the terms to designate examples of each.

... recognizes appropriate occasions for using literal and figurative language in his own writing.

OBJECTIVES

The child will

... understand that figurative language extends meaning by associating word referents in an unusual way.

... understand that continued use in the same context of a figurative use of a word may cause it to acquire new meaning which becomes commonly accepted as a meaning in literal language; that figurative use of language is one of the important ways by which language changes.

... understand that through figurative language the writer communicates his feelings about the concept as well as the concept itself.

... use in his writing figures of speech he himself developes from his own sensitivity to similarities and relationships.

... understand that people use figures of speech to overcome the limitations of the language.

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

1. To understand that figurative language extends meaning by associating word referents in an unusual way.

Example: Pupils tell the lexical meaning of certain words appearing in a list (not in context), they consider the meaning implied by these same words as they are used together in figurative language in the following:

(a) waves (noun)
soldiers
sweeping

Waves of soldiers came sweeping across the field.

(b) heads (noun)
profane

Long rows of great trees hold their heads high and proud, as though they expected no profane hand to bring them low.

(c) slouch
sulky
eyes (noun)

The cottage stood sulky and alone on the edge of the woods, with its slouch hat of a roof pulled over its eyes.

Conclude this discussion with the idea that the words in figures of speech signify their own meaning and, at the same time, give greater clarity to the meaning of some other word. The relationships between the words are new. This newness adds interest and meaning.

Example: Pupils are asked to examine the trade names of household products. They consider the meaning implied by the producer in the name given to his product: "Staflo," "Glo Coat," "Gleam," etc. The discussion focuses on the similarities between trade-names and figures of speech.

2. To understand that continued use in the same context of a figurative use of a word may cause it to acquire new meaning which becomes commonly accepted as a meaning in literal language; that figurative use of language is one of the important ways by which language changes.

Example: Children consider the idea that expressions such as "the foot of the mountain," "the foot of the bed," etc., were once figures of speech, but now carry lexical meaning. (Ask children to locate definitions in a dictionary.)

They seek and examine other phrases in common use among some poeple and decide whether or not they might once have carried the same fresh interest and imagery as a current figure of speech carries:

The stockmarket tumbled.

The heads of nations convened in a summit meeting.

The airplane nosed toward the landing strip.

I'm so full I'm about to burst.

Where in the world did you get that?

Example: Pupils compare worn-out figures of speech with "live" ones made by the pupils themselves.

I'm as cold as ice.
I'm as cold as a puppy's nose.

I'm as hot as fire.
I'm as hot as boiling-over soup.

He's as slow as Christmas.
He's as slow as the end of school.

Other clichés, trite phrases, are located. Pupils try to rejuvenate the worn-out figure of speech by re-writing, using fresh comparisons.

3. To understand that through figurative language the speaker or writer communicates his feeling about the concept as well as the concept itself.

Example: Pupils compare sets of statements:

(a) These two statements were made by brothers as they saw that their mother was cooking corned beef for dinner.

One boy said, "We going to have food for the Gods!"

His brother's comment was, "You're giving us dog-food again."

(b) These two statements were made by men just as a rainstorm came:

A farmer who has just planted beans to sell: "This rain is like money in the bank."

A lady who had just hung the laundry on the line: "This rain is a prod to use to get my husband to buy a dryer."

(c) Looking at the ferris wheel, a small boy said, "That rides you to the sky."

Looking at the same object, a mother said, "That is one worry I can do without."

Example: The teacher presents a statement containing a figure of speech and pupils try to determine the kind of person who might have said it and under what conditions. They write a paragraph or a story extending the feeling and meaning presented in the statement. Sample statements:

I nearly died of fright.

He gave me a poisonous look.

I had a cold, gray feeling in the pit of my stomach.

His heart danced.

His knees turned to water.

4. To use in his writing figures of speech he himself develops from his own sensitivity to similarities and relationship.

Example: Pupils group themselves in pairs and observe their partners very closely during several different activities. They write descriptive statements about the person being observed: his appearance, his manner of working, the way he moves about, the way he responds to other people, etc.

Example: Pupils observe a first grade child at recess. They write descriptive statements about the young child's movements at play.

Example: Using a filmstrip without its accompanying recording, pupils write a story about the place and events seen. "The Selfish Giant" by Oscar Wilde is a good one.

Example: Introduce Japanese haiku to children:

Haiku poetry usually talks about nature in some form; weather, trees, time of day, and the like. It has seventeen syllables contained in three lines: five syllables in the first line, seven in the second line, and five in the third.

Read some examples from a chart or worksheet, so that pupils can see the poetry as they hear it read.

Examples from student's word:

Now the weary sleep,
Calm and secure like children.
Rain, the lullaby.

In the dark, rain falls
And spreads in gentle ripples
To the stony bank.

Children write haiku. The examples and the short, controlled form encourages the use of figurative language.

Example: Experiment with controlled writing following these directions: the first line of one word gives the subject of the poem; the second line of two words describes the subject; the third line of three words expresses an action of the subject; the fourth line of four words expresses the writer's feelings concerning the subject; and the fifth line of one word expresses a characteristic of the word in line one.

Examples:

Snails
Slow, clumsy,
Move cautiously there--
Creepy, house-carrying things.
Lost!

Chipmunk,
Brown lightning,
Digging holes everywhere
Holes are not wanted.
Nuisance.

5. To understand that people use figures of speech to overcome the limitations of the language.

Example: Children discuss the language used by young children who are defining a term. When asked what is an orange, a young child may say "It's something to eat. It's round like a ball, but it's juicy." Read Happiness Is a Warm Puppy by Charles Schulz.

Establish the understanding that a person who has a limited vocabulary may use figurative language to supplement the literal language he possesses.

Example: The pupils discuss methods used by an adult who is explaining an abstract term or a complicated process to a young child. Lead pupils to think about ways they themselves might answer questions of young children: Where does the sun go when night comes? What is snow? Where does rain come from? etc.

Establish the idea that a speaker often uses figurative language if his listener has a limited vocabulary or limited experience with the idea being discussed.

Example: The teacher initiates discussion of the fact that fluent speakers and good writers also use figures of speech because of language limitations, not because they do not know a literal term, but because the literal term may be insufficient to carry feeling or to create an image.

Pupils establish the understanding that limitations in the meanings of words themselves cause people to use figurative language.

The discussion concludes with the idea that language is flexible.

One can use his stockpile of words (limited or vast) both literally and figuratively in order to communicate effectively. This characteristic of language makes it remarkably convenient to its users.

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DICTIONARY

Fourth Grade

EXPECTED READINESS

The child

... understands and uses simple dictionaries.

... alphabetizes to second and third letter.

... understands the concepts of antonyms and synonyms.

... identifies prefixes, suffixes, syllables, root words and primary accent in simple, familiar words.

OBJECTIVES

The child will

... develop understanding of information contained in a dictionary entry.

... develop skill in dictionary use
- ... alphabetizing
- ... using guide words
- ... selecting a meaning from multiple meanings
- ... using pronunciation guides
- ... understanding root words and derived and inflected forms
- ... selecting appropriate synonyms

... recognizes differences among dictionaries designed for different purposes.

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

1. To develop understanding of information contained in each entry in dictionary.

Example: Introduce the idea that the dictionary is a source of help when we read or hear words which are new to us. To emphasize this, ask questions such as the following and encourage pupils' use of the dictionary in finding or checking their answers:

(1) Where could you find a culvert? (1) in the kitchen; (2) under a road; (3) at the zoo; (4) in the garage; (5) in a forest.

(2) Where would you find a glade? (1) in the kitchen; (2) at the zoo; (3) in a forest; (4) in a barbershop; (5) in a tool shed.

(3) If someone asked you to roil water, what would you do? (1) drink it; (2) hear it; (3) set it to evaporate; (4) stir it up; (5) pour it out.

(4) If someone described you as winsome how would you feel? (1) pleased; (2) angry; (3) disappointed; (4) sick; (5) hurt.

(5) If you had a lackey what would you have? (1) something to eat; (2) something to ride in; (3) a pet; (4) a teacher; (5) a servant.

(6) If you had some victuals what would you do? (1) throw them away; (2) wear them; (3) eat them; (4) put them in a cage; (5) plant them.

Example: From the Want Ad section of the newspaper call attention to the Lost and Found column. Read one or two items and discuss. Then pose questions such as those listed below. Encourage the use of a dictionary in finding the answers.

If I lost a hogshead and offered a reward to the finder, what would you hunt?

If I lost a sickle and asked you to help locate it, what would you look for?

If you found a dromedary, whom would you call as the likely owner?

Suppose you read this advertisement: Lost, a brace of falcons; reward. In what sorts of places would you hunt?

Example: Display a variety of newspaper advertising sheets. Pupil selects an item advertised and use dictionary to re-write advertisement, as:

Sale, round seeds from the pods of a plant; used as a vegetable; 19¢ (Peas)

Bargain! Outer coverings for a person's feet, $8.95. (Shoes)

Cut prices, containers for holding food; $12.50. (Dishes)

Later, the advertising sheets are removed and pupils exchange their own advertisements. They guess the item defined and draw a picture to illustrate it. Pupils check their guesses by using the dictionary.

Example: Pupils and teacher explore together the types of content contained in a dictionary entry. Questions are encouraged from pupils or asked by the teacher: Why do you suppose a picture is included with the definition of the word rickshaw? Why is there not a picture for the word rickety? Are these two words related to a common root word? Why are complete sentences sometimes given as illustrations, when at other times only illustrative phrases are used? If you were a lexicographer writing the information to accompany the word wheel, would you draw a picture? Why?

2. A. To develop skill in dictionary use: alphabetizing.

Example: Review alphabetizing. Which comes first, drill or drop? Why? Extend ability to alphabetize to the fourth letter. Write short lists of words on the board, such as card, car, care, cartoon, carton. Call attention to the fact that each begins with the letters c-a-r. Pupils determine the alphabetical order of these words.

Example: For grouping in a class activity, pupils draw words from a box. The "b words" form a team, the "f words" a second team, the "r words" a third team, etc. Team members arrange themselves for turns according to the alphabetical order of their words.

Team B words: blaze, blink, blade, bitten, boast, black, blizzard.

Team F words: frost, frisky, front, freight, fresh, froze, fright.

Team R words: rattle, rather, rarely, reader, ready, realize, really.

2. B. To develop skill in dictionary use: using guide words.

Example: Explain the use of guide words. Play a game in which teams compete in locating a dictionary entry and telling the guide words. Discuss with the class the value of sectioning the dictionary, thinking of it as the front, middle, and back sections. Encourage the class to become familiar with the letters included in each section. Time pupils as they locate words in each of these sections.

Example: Discuss the fact that many English words have several meanings. Write the word run on the board and elicit from pupils many different meanings for the word. Locate the word run in the dictionary to see how the multiple meanings are presented. Continue this same activity with other familiar words.

Example: Play game "Double or Nothing." A player must give two statements illustrating two different meanings of a word given to him. He scores two points or nothing for his team. Sample words for game: bore, yard, meal, box, switch, sink, room, match, handle, dock, deck, bill, bark, bat.

2. C. To develop skill in dictionary use: pronunciation guides.

Example: Discuss with pupils the pronunciation key found in their dictionaries. Use the key to pronounce familiar and unfamiliar words.

Example: Use the pronunciation guides to show in written form the pronunciation of pupils' own names and names of objects in the classroom.

Example: Discuss with pupils the limitations of the pronunciation key. The key can identify only the pronunciation of a word which is isolated or removed from other words. When it is in a flow of speech, the word is likely to be so influenced by its neighboring sounds that the sounds heard within the word are often different. Write examples on the board and ask pupils to read them orally. Read or pronounce the isolated word, then read the word in a sentence and notice the changes in sound:

apple	I have an apple.
eyes	Betty has hazel eyes.
of	I wish I had plenty of money.
engineer	He has been an engineer for twenty years.

Example: Explain the use of primary and secondary accent. Ask pupils to apply this information to familiar words such as *mathematics*, *atmospheric*, *operation*, *fiftieth*, etc.; then to unfamiliar words such as *assertion*, *avocado*, *introductory*, *reestablish*, *congregation*, *tonsillitis*, and *presidential*.

2. D. To develop skill in dictionary use: root words and inflected forms.

Example: Ask pupils to find the root word in the following words: *tamer*, *tamest*, *tamed*, *tames*, and *taming*. Lead pupils in a discussion of the meanings signified by the word *tame*. Elicit the meaning of *tame* as a describing word (That is a tame bear.), and as an action word (I can tame a bear.).

Example: Lead children into a discussion of the word *tamer*. Ask for sentences illustrating its use. Lead to conclusions about the meaning of the term. The ending -*er* on *tamer* tells us that two things have been compared and that one is more gentle, or less wild, than the other.

Example: Discuss with pupils the word *tames*, made from the action word *tame* (to make gentle, to cause to be less wild). Give a few sentences to supply contexts for the word *tames*: John tames every squirrel he finds. Harry tames animals at his grandfather's farm every summer. Susan tames baby birds. Lead to the generalization that the -s on the action word tame does not change the meaning of tame. It tells us that just one person (not I nor you, but a third person) is doing the taming.

Example: Write the term "inflected form" on the board and explain that root words with endings such as -er, -est, -ed, -s, -ing, etc., are called inflected forms of words, or inflections. Follow with a discussion of other words. Decide whether they are root words or inflected forms: traveled, keep, diamonds, pretty, prettier, meanest. If they are inflected forms, what additional information does the inflection give to us?

Use the dictionary to find the inflected forms of words such as the following: exhaust, flat, house, method, nation, nurse, slack, sword, and tolerate.

Example: Ask pupils to choose a word from a limited list to hunt during the next two or three days and to make a note of the way the word is used in materials heard or read. At the end of the search write on a sheet of paper the root word and the varied contexts in which it was used. List also any words derived from this root which were heard or read. Sample words to be hunted: ball, beauty, house, work, play, air.

2. E. To develop skill in dictionary use: synonyms.

Example: Review understandings of the term synonyms and elicit illustrations. Lead pupils to see that synonymous terms are not always exactly the same in meaning but are closely related. Use illustrations as examples of gradations of meaning within synonymous terms:

Mary has a little puppy.
Mary has a small puppy.

Jimmy ate his lunch.
Jimmy devoured his lunch.
Jimmy picked at his lunch.

A boy brought us our flag.
A scout brought us our national emblem.

The baby fell from his chair.
The baby tumbled from his chair.

Conclude with the idea that interest may be added by using a more colorful or a more exactly descriptive synonym in place of an obvious word.

Example: Elicit pupils' aid in re-writing a paragraph using synonyms for the underlined words. Suggest that they use their dictionaries to find synonyms from which to choose.

Sample paragraph: When the children *stayed* at school to *trim* the Christmas tree, they had a *strange* experience. *All* the lights went out. As they *groped* their way to the door they heard a *funny* noise. Everyone left the school building *running fast*!

Read paragraphs aloud to see what synonyms were used. Discuss the added interest which comes with varying one's choice of words. Lead to realization that the dictionary is a source for synonyms.

3. To recognize differences among dictionaries designed for different purposes.

Example: The teacher begins a discussion by introducing ideas such as these: Think of the time many, many years ago when there were no dictionaries. Why do you suppose the first one was made? Who would need a dictionary?

Example: Elicit discussion about needs for some special dictionaries and for general dictionaries. Ask pupils to pretend that they live in a large city and that a farm boy or girl moves into the apartment next door. The farm boy hears many terms which are strange to him, *subway*, *policeman's beat*, *garbage chute*, etc. He asks you to make him a dictionary for "city talk." What words would you put into it? Give meanings for ten words which you think he will need.

Example: Pretend that a city boy or girl comes to work on your farm. He hears many new terms (combine, seeder, haymow, etc.) and asks you to make him a dictionary for "farm talk." What words would you enter into such a dictionary? List ten such words, and write their meanings.

Example: Divide class into groups for making special content dictionaries. One group will make a science dictionary, compiling terms, definitions, and illustrations of concepts being studied at the time. Another group will compile a social studies dictionary, another a language dictionary. The group chairmen will serve as editors; all group members are lexicographers. Any pupil may suggest words for a particular dictionary.

Example: Bring an unabridged dictionary, a high school dictionary, a collegiate dictionary, a picture dictionary and some specialized dictionaries to the attention of the class. Ask pupils to compare these with the junior dictionaries which have been issued to them. Ask them to tell you some differences which they notice. List ways in which all dictionaries are similar and list ways in which they may be different.

Example: Ask pupils to locate a particular word entry, such as spaghetti, in each type of dictionary available. Compare the information content presented in the various dictionaries. Use additional words such as tomahawk, bank, cow, and chewing gum, until pupils are familiar with the types of information given in the various kinds of dictionaries.

Example: In studying the form of presenting information, the pupils and teacher make an arithmetic dictionary listing a few of the terms used in their arithmetic work. Each word entry is accompanied by the information the pupils are able to find: syllabication, accent marks, derivation, definition, use in context, and an arithmetic example. Arrange the information in the same order as that found in their junior dictionaries.

Sample entry: "mul' ti ply, (mul' t pli); take some number a given number of times. To multiply six by three means to take six three times, making eighteen (6 X 3 = 18). *mul ti plied*, *mul ti ply ing*.

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DICTIONARY

Fifth Grade

EXPECTED READINESS

The child

... recognizes the usefulness of various types of dictionaries.

... understands the types of information found within a dictionary entry.

... has developed skill in dictionary use.

OBJECTIVES

The child will

... develop an understanding that word meanings may change.

... develop an understanding of etymology.

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

1. To understand changes in word meanings.

The teacher explains that words change over a period of time: the spelling changes, words drop out of use, and new words are made as need for them arises.

Example: The children give their definitions of the following words. Use a dictionary which shows etymologies to check their definitions and to find the origins of the words and their earlier meanings.

silly
charm
hussy
curfew
nice

Example: Examine statements containing obsolete or archaic words (see below). Ask pupils to try to determine the meanings of the words from the contexts. Explain that these words are no longer used but that at one time they were commonly used. Try to locate each sample word in a junior, a collegiate, and an unabridged dictionary. Draw conclusions about its being listed in one and not being listed in another.

Sample words: (1) holp, archaic word, replaced by the word helped (past tense); holpen, an archaic word replaced by the term helped (past participle):

Yesterday John holp me clean the paint brushes.

He has holpen me many times.

(2) helm, archaic word replaced helmet, a defensive covering for the head:

Ted returned his football helm because it did not fit.

(3) jack, archaic word refering to a pitcher or can for liquor:

The man placed his jack on the table and reached for a glass.

Ask pupils to use a dictionary to locate the obsolete or archaic meanings for words such as the following: gossip, melt, see, jaunty, let, appoint, Nowell, very, and wimple.

Example: Secure two of three dictionaries of different copyright dates. Ask pupils to find such words as space ship, television, expressway, super market, and cafeteria. Discuss the reasons these are not found in the older editions.

2. To develop an understanding of etymology.

Example: Select a new word pertinent to current needs in some area of the curriculum (eclipse in science, republic in social studies, gouache in art, and the like); ask pupils to look in a collegiate or unabridged dictionary to find the origin of this word and the parent language.

Discuss and clarify the meaning of each symbol, abbreviation, and phrase within the bracketed section following the word entry in the dictionary. Refer to dictionary explanatory material for clarifying information.

Example: Locate and discuss origins of words familiar to pupils (apple, ball, etc.) in order to gain facility to use of this information supplied by dictionaries.

Example: Locate the section of collegiate or unabridged dictionary in which are listed common English given names. Children look for the origins of their own names.

DICTIONARY

Sixth Grade

EXPECTED READINESS

The child

... uses the dictionary with skill for a variety of purposes.

OBJECTIVES

The child will

... understand that dialect differences cause multiple pronunciation listings in dictionaries.

... distinguish between dictionary entries labeled colloquial and slang from standard word entries.

... learn to use dictionary explanatory materials.

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

1. To understand that dialect differences cause multiple pronunciation listings in dictionaries.

Example: Examine in an unabridged dictionary the pronunciation for words such as tomato, aunt, menu, and often. Try to determine dialect areas in which each pronunciation is likely to be used.

Example: Record sample speech of pupils in the class. Encourage each child to listen to his own pronunciations and to compare them with those of other pupils. Later check one's own pronunciation of words with the standard pronunciations supplied in the dictionary. Note the differences between citation pronunciation and pronunciation in flow of speech.

2. To distinguish between colloquial, slang, and standard entries.

Colloquialism refers to that form of speech that is characteristic of relaxed, informal conversation. Everybody uses colloquialism in talking with friends. We use them in classroom discussions. They are natural and proper in informal spoken English. Children should be led to see, however, that a writer avoids colloquialism unless he is recording informal oral conversation or deliberately trying to reflect it in his writing.

Slang is a popular form of extremely informal language. It is newly invented words or old words used with new meanings. Usually slang is used by a small and intimate speech group and is a sign of belonging to that group. Slang, just as any popular habit, is fashionable for a while and then becomes dated.

Example: Select from pupils' own writing an illustration of colloquialism or slang used for special effect. The selection below is from a sixth grader's story about Babe Ruth as told by his baseball glove:

"Babe hit the big time at twenty-nine."

Discuss with pupils the phrase "...hit the big time...." Decide when this phrase could be used appropriately in speech and in writing and when it would be unacceptable.

Example: Examine in an unabridged dictionary slang words: gimme, ain't, gosh, coke, cat, pot, hot dog, and hot.

Example: Write a sample of informal conversation between two friends. Use the slang words in the recorded conversation. Re-write the conversation using standard dialect.

3. To learn to use dictionary explanatory materials.

Example: Using dictionary explanatory materials, like other skills, should come as a result of a need. When abbreviations are encountered within a word entry, there is a sensible and practical time to refer to the section of abbreviations. When help is needed in translating the pronunciation key symbols, the section entitled Pronunciation is used. In reading, as the pupil encounters the name of an unfamiliar city, he may be asked to look for it in the appendix entitled Gazetteer.

The teacher's own frequent use of dictionary explanatory material or her reference to it in class conversation indicates to children the values of it.

HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Fourth Grade

EXPECTED READINESS

The child

... understands that the language system includes stress patterns which help to give meanings to utterances.

... understands the purpose of a graphic system of language.

... understands that language is changed through addition of words from other languages.

OBJECTIVES

The child will

... extend his understanding that language is an arbitrary system of symbolic sounds.

... understand that words have histories.

... understand that words from other languages are a part of the English language.

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

1. To extend understanding that language is an arbitrary system of symbolic sounds.

Example: List nonsense words and actual words that are probably unfamiliar to the children. Read the list with the children and try to decide which are real words and which are not. Check in the unabridged dictionary to determine accuracy of the decision.

shaveling	frappe	dexetude

incubate
czar
dopt
inkzle
pollid
splotch
cockade

Discuss why some are included as a part of the language and others are not. Point out that some of the combinations of letters that look like words are not words because people have not agreed to use them to represent something they know. The words have the sounds that are in the language, but they do not have any meanings that people have agreed upon.

Example: List words from different languages that symbolize the same things:

English	*Spanish*	*German*
blue	azul	blau
God	Dios	Gott
pencil	lapiz	Bleistift
night	noche	Nacht
mother	madre	Mutter

Because the people of Spanish-speaking countries accept *azul* to mean *blue* they understand it; to most of us, however, it would seem strange because we symbolize the color by another word, *blue*. When a person learns to speak a foreign language, he must accept and use the symbols of that language; then he can talk with the people who regularly use them.

2. To understand that words have histories.

Example: Most of the words in our language have long histories. They have not always had the same meanings they have today but their present meanings are related to their earlier meanings. For example:

Bonfire once meant a *fire* *of* *bones*.

Bugle once meant an *ox*.

A *candidate* was one *dressed in white*.

Escape meant to *slip out of one's cape*.

A *fool* was a *windbag*.

Pencil meant a *little tail*.

Salary meant *salt money*.

Using the unabridged dictionary, see if you can find the relations of these words to their earlier meanings.

Other words with interesting histories are:

cabbage
daisy
magazine
circus
dandelion
school
umbrella

Example: Some words come into the language from names of people or mythical characters. Find the origins of

sandwich
magnolia
vulcanize
atlas
nicotine
cereal
Wednesday

Example: Encourage the children to study their own names.

(1) Look up names in dictionary to find meaning and derivation.

(2) Ask parents about history of their names. Is the name a family name, a familiar name chosen for some special reason, a name created especially for the individual?

(3) Write stories of their own name or names of members of family and friends.

3. To understand that words from other languages are a part of the English language.

Example: As a check on the variety of languages that have contributed to English, study the list of abbreviations in front of dictionary to see how many abbreviations stands for different languages. Look up the following words to see which languages they are from:

Kindergarten
kimona
sombrero
banquet
racoon
cent
chipmunk
dachshund

Why does one language borrow from another? What are the advantages of borrowing?

Example: Help children find the meanings of English words that are derived from or taken directly from Latin. Point out the notations in the dictionary that show these come from Latin and their meanings in Latin and relate them to the English meaning.

pedal
exit
extra
per cent
cent
veto
decimal
vocal
script
submarine
dentist
grade

Point out that although Latin is now a dead language that it was once, hundreds of years ago, spoken by more people than was any other language and that many languages have words from Latin.

Example: Make a list of familiar foods that have names from languages other than English and find their origins. Suggestions:

wiener
chile con carne
chop suey
liverwurst
hamburger
spaghetti
potato
banana
chocolate

Why do you suppose we borrow names of foods?

HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Fifth Grade

EXPECTED READINESS

The child

... understands that language is an arbitrary system of symbolic sounds through which people communicate.

... understands that words have histories.

... understands that words from different languages help to make up our language.

OBJECTIVES

The child will

... relate current language to its historical antecedents.

... recognize and appreciate language variations of different individuals and groups, with emphasis on the arbitrary nature of language.

... recognize and use the peculiar characteristics of written language as effective substitutes for the auditory and visual components of oral communication.

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

1. To relate current language to its historical antecedents.

Example: Use of a film or story version of Twain's A Connecticut Yankee in King Arthur's Court provides contrast between older and newer usage of the English language. In addition, this story provides a contrast in ways of life, which may be expanded by the use of several films, King Arthur, Charlemagne, Life in a Medieval Castle, and Life in a Medieval Village.

Example: Reading a Dr. Seuss story, such as If I Ran the Circus, can be used to lead into an analogy between his strange looking coined words and some strange looking Old English words.

O.E. hnutu N.E. nut
O.E. singan N.E. sing
O.E. a napron - N.E. apron

Example: Explain that Indo-European is the parent language, from people who lived in Northern Europe. Construct a mobile that will be a chain of language as well as a simple time line (see diagram). This activity may be done as a conclusion to the unit or in conjunction with the learning process. Under each language the children may hang examples of types of writing; pictures of authors (as Shakespeare), of particular dress, or of some item characteristic of the times (as Viking ships). As each segment is hung, mapwork (indicating the migration which developed a new language) should be done.

Other activities appropriate during the construction of the time line include outside reports on life and times for Old, Middle, and New English, viewing of the film "The History and Development of the English Language" and other appropriate films, book reports, and a study of the history of names of the children.

2. To recognize and appreciate language variations of different individuals and groups, with emphasis on the arbitrary nature of language.

Example: Play taped sounds from dogs, ducks, cows, etc. Ask the children to tell what a dog says. One child may say "bow-wow," another "wuff-arf," another "grr," and still another "rruff." Point out that a French child might say "gnaf-gnaf," a German child "wau-wau," and a Japanese child "wung-wung." Who is right? Is anyone? How can they tell what sounds other animals such as ducks and cows make? Then let them listen to the tape and see if they can come closer to the sounds made and try to write them. They can compare with each other their different spellings of the sound heard.

Example: Many children's books are written with words of another language written over the English. Using one of these, such as A Dragon in My Bed, project some of the passages on the board to show that although the meaning is the same, the words are different. Discuss the fact that every language may have a word for dog, but the words are different.

Example: Student committees may look up various kinds of writing in the encyclopedia: Chinese characters, the Greek alphabet, Hebrew, Russian, the Cyrillic alphabet. They may draw pictures or (with the teacher's aid) make transparencies of some characters and report to the class.

Example: The children examine passages from The Battle of Brunanburgh and a passage from Chaucer (See p.209). With the teacher's guidance they identify differences between Old English, Middle English, and Modern English.

4. To recognize and use the peculiar characteristics of written language as effective substitutes for the auditory and visual components of oral communication.

Example: Record a story as a child tells it to the class. Then have the child to write the story and compare the written version with the taped version.

Example: Ask the question, "Where did John go today?" A child may answer, "John went to school today," stressing school. Have him write his answer on the board. Then ask, "Who went to school today?" He says, "John went to school today," emphasizing John. Have him write this answer on the board. Note that the answers do not look different and ask what the writer can do to make the difference understood.

Example: Ask a child to tell his classmates something that pleases or excites him, as "I have a new go-cart." Write this sentence on the board and ask if it shows his smile or the excitement in his voice. Ask how the sentence should be written to express excitement. The students can then write a paragraph about oral communication factors, such as gestures, facial expressions, tone of voice, and stress, that cannot be used in written expression.

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The English Language, Story of Its Development, No. 2397. Coronet.

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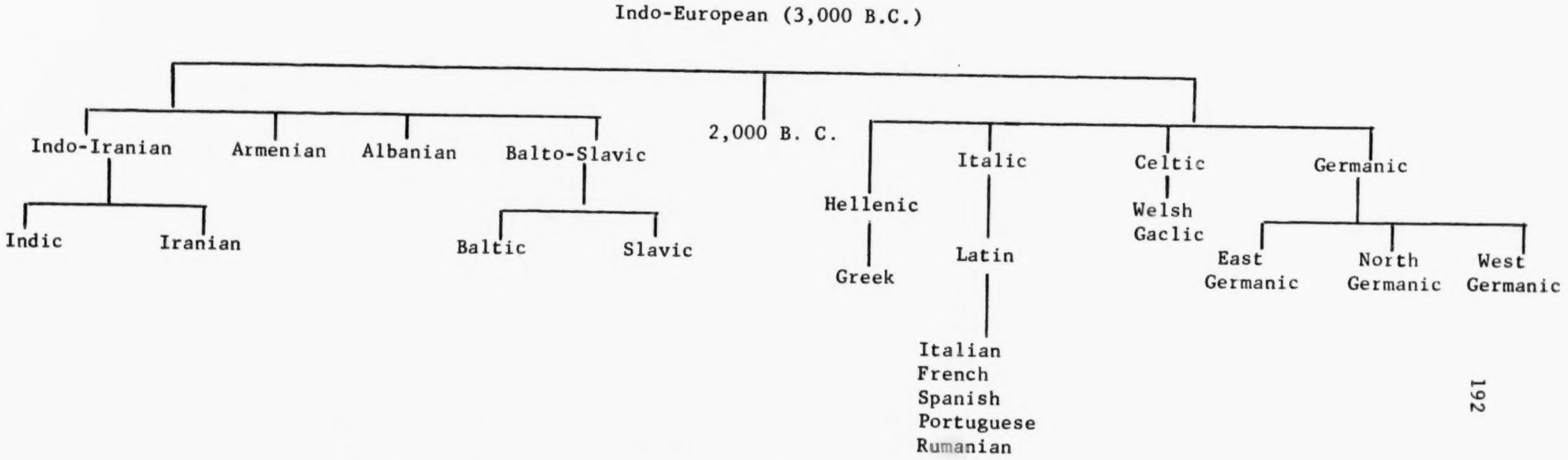
Life in a Medieval Village, from series Life in Ancient Times. McGraw-Hill.

SAMPLE MOBILE DIAGRAM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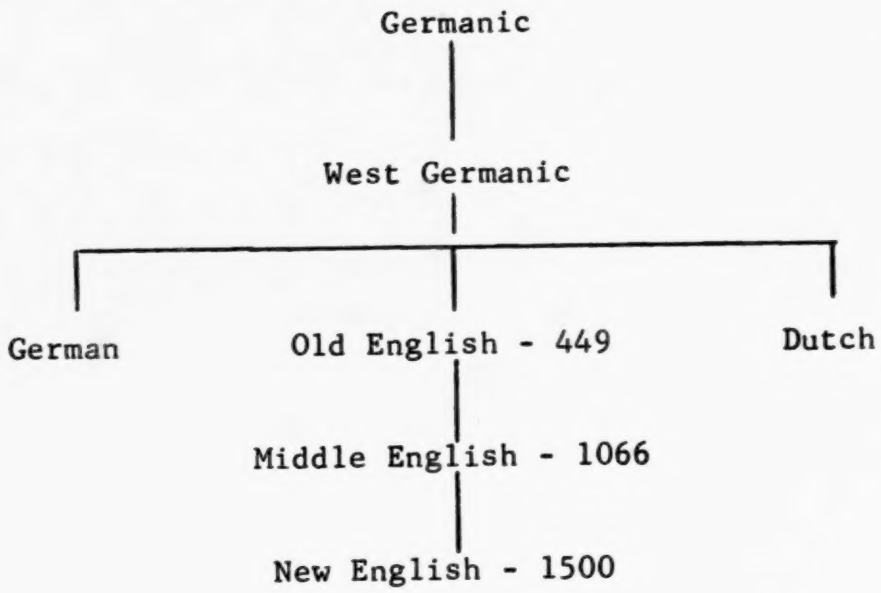
2,000 B. C.
Indo-Iranian
Armenian
Albanian
Balto-Slavic
Indic
Iranian
Baltic
Slavic
Hellenic
Greek
Italic
Latin
Italian
French
Spanish
Portuguese
Rumanian
Celtic
Welsh
Gaclic
Germanic
East
Germanic
North
Germanic
West
Germanic

SAMPLE MOBILE DIAGRAM


Germanic
West Germanic
German
Old English - 449
Dutch
Middle English - 1066
New English - 1500

HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Sixth Grade

EXPECTED READINESS

The child

... understands that language is an arbitrary system of symbolic sounds through which people communicate.

... understands that words may denote action.

... understands that language changes over a period of time; relates current language to its historical antecedents.

... understands that words from different languages help to make up our language.

... understands current language variations of different individuals and groups.

... understands the characteristics of written language which substitute for auditory and visual components of communication.

OBJECTIVES

The child will

... understand processes through which words have been formed.

... recognize and use the differences within a language, both historical and dialectal, for style variation.

... relate his own vocabulary expansion to the process of language expansion.

... recognize the interdependence of language, thought, and human action in history.

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

1. To understand processes through which words have been formed.

Example: Write on the board the word pasteurize, or another word derived from a proper name. Ask the students to figure out how and why the word was formed. Discuss this process of word formation and ask students to find other such words and be prepared to tell the class about the words and their derivations. Other words might include gerrymander, January, mosaic, Christian, thunder, Shermanize, etc.

Example: Prepare a mimeograph list of prefixes, suffixes and root words. Ask students to see how many logical combinations they can make. Discuss the change in meaning or function that occurs when a particular prefix or suffix is added. Refer to the unabridged dictionary for verification of existence in English of words formed by children.

Example: Encourage students to look up the history of new and unusual words as they arise in social studies, science, etc. The student writes these words, with brief notations about derivations, in a special section of his notebook. Ask students to share with the class any expecially interesting derivations.

2. To recognize and use the differences within a language, both historical and dialectal, for style variation.

Example: Show some of the Uncle Remus films, such as The Laughing Place and The Tar Baby. Then discuss the dialect in the film and Joel Chandler Harris as a writer of dialect. Read "The Horse-Swap" or "The Song" from A. B. Longstreet's Georgia Scenes and compare his use of dialect to Harris's use of dialect.

Example: Play a section of a recording of My Fair Lady and direct attention to the British English. Then play sections of taped speeches of President Johnson and President Kennedy, directing attention to the contrast in dialects and localisms. Discuss the wide variations in English as spoken in Britain, Massachusetts, and Texas. Extend the discussion to include differences in the speech of the students themselves, with reference to their individual backgrounds.

Example: Read a passage from the King James version of the Bible and ask children to point out unusual expressions, such as "It came to pass that," "begot," etc. Follow this with a recording of "The Raven," "The Highwayman," or another appropriate poem and note the fact that poetry uses older language. Then read some nursery rhymes or fables from Aesop and observe the peculiarities of language used. Finally, contrast all these to a modern story in the literature text.

The children as a group might then try to rewrite a simple nursery rhyme in Biblical language, a fable in Uncle Remus dialect, etc. Then discuss the proper union of style and idea.

Example: Have each student to write a note to a friend in class, substituting root forms for current forms of some words. See if the recipient can read the note.

Sample:

Please go with me to the movie this afternoon. I have enough money for both of us.

Plaisirez (O.F.) gan (A.S.) with me to the motio (L.) pictura (L.) this aefter (O.E.) -non (O.E.). Ic (O.E.) haebbe (O.E.) genoh (O.E.) moneie (O.F.) for bothe (M.E.) eower. (O.E.)

3. To relate his own vocabulary expansion to the process of language expansion.

Example: List on the board these words: girl, boy, ran, fell, the, little, big, look, and. The children are to pretend they do not know any words except those listed. They try to write a story using only these words. Then let each one add five words to his list and rewrite his story. Does it sound better? Do they think that this process might be one way new words came into the language over a period of time? Discuss the process of enrichment of the language and of an individual's vocabulary.

Example: Ask students to try to draw a new animal and to make a name for that kind of animal. Discuss reasons for choice of names. Is the name a combination of the names of several animals because the new animal is a combination of known animals? A boy has a dog that is a combination beagle-boxer, so he calls him a *bogle*. Discuss other possibilities and the fact that this process--coining names for objects that are combinations of other things--is one means of language expansion.

Example: Ask students to list words that have been coined for space activities and to try to figure out the derivations of the words. *Astronaut* and *cosmonaut* are good starters.

Example: Ask the question, "If your mother needs a cup of sugar and does not have any, what does she do?" She borrows it. Explain that if English needs a new word, it frequently borrows it from another language. Ask students to try to think of some new things we have borrowed from other countries, along with their names. They cut out pictures and words they think are borrowed and display them on a "Borrower's Board" in the front of the room. Some starters are *Fritos*, *hamburgers*, *ballet*, *garage*, *amoeba*. Students check on these words in the dictionary to be sure they were borrowed and from whom they were borrowed.

4. To recognize the interdependence of language, thought, and human action in history.

Example: A dramatization of Pilgrims and Indians would show that although the Pilgrims adopted some Indian words such as maize, they retained English as their language because they were in power over the Indians and took from the Indians' language only those words for which there were no English equivalents.

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Tape

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HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

The history of the English language has, among others, been concerned with two areas of interest: (1) similarity of English to other language and (2) changes in the English language over periods of time.

The question of relationships among languages often evoked by student's encountering such similar words as praesidens (Lt.), presidente (Sp.), and president is not new; certain correspondences among languages have been noted for centuries. The explanation of these similarities has derived from the findings of comparative linguistic scholarship. Begun in the eighteenth century by such men as Sir William Jones and Franz Bopp, this comparative study of the sound structures, grammatical features, and word-stocks of different languages has indicated that such languages as Italian, Greek, Sanskrit, German, and English are related through a common ancestor. Indeed, common features among the languages of the Indo-Iranian, Hellenic, Italic, Celtic, Balto-Slavic, Armenian, Albanian, and Germanic groups allow them to be designated as members of a family of languages, called Indo-European.[1]

Although there are no extant written records of the Indo-European source language, scholars have been able to reconstruct it with reasonable accuracy by using data gathered from comparative studies of the languages of the family. In addition to reconstructing the language itself, scholars have been able to postulate the location of the Indo-European homeland and certain features of its culture; this is done by studying the core of cognate words, or words similar in structure and meaning, common to all of the languages of the family. For example, all of the languages contain words corresponding to mother and father, so it is reasonable to assume the principles of family organization which those words indicate as part of Indo-European culture.[2] Similarly, words designating the fauna and flora of northern Europe are present in all of the languages, whereas words indicating those forms of life indigenous to Asia and the Mediterranean are not; for this reason, scholars have established the location of the Indo-European homeland as near present-day Lithuania.[3]

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[1] For a discussion of early scholarship in comparative linguistics, see Thomas Pyles, The Origins and Development of the English Language (New York, 1964), pp. 71-74.

Although relating the languages of the Indo-European family to a common origin accounts for many existing similarities among languages, this does not explain the existence of differences in the languages. The explanation lies in the application of two linguistic principles: that language is changed and that linguistic changes tend to vary among separate groups of speakers. In other words, when groups of speakers become dispersed, as happened in the Indo-European tribal migrations around the third millenium B.C., dialects, or speech differences which are not prohibitive to inter-group communication, develop. If different groups of speakers remain relatively isolated, then speech diversities eventually become so great that communication across dialect lines is no longer possible; at this point, the dialects may be classified as separate languages. Repetition of this process yields many languages, each of which differs from its predecessors but retains similarities relating it to them.

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[2] Ibid., p. 78.

[3] Paul Thieme, "The Indo-European Language," Scientific American, CXLIX (October, 1958), 63-74.

Among those characteristics distinguishing the languages of the Germanic group are two which are of particular significance to the development of the English language. One of these is the early fixation of stress upon the first syllable of a word (or upon the root syllable of a word preceded by prefixes). Because unstressed syllables, particularly final syllables and endings, are often weakened or lost in the spoken language, this early fixing of stress upon the first syllable of a word is a major factor contributing to the change of English from a synthetic language (Old English) to an analytic language (Modern English). Indeed, the weakening of final syllables is a phenomenon still occurring in spoken English. In addition to the fixation of stress, the development of a weak, or consonantal, verb system is an important feature in the development of English. This means that, in addition to indicating change in verb tense by internal vowel changes, as ride, rode, ridden, English employs the addition of the dental suffixes, [d] and [t], to designate the preterit and past participle.

The Old English Period (449-1100)

Old English, the name given by philologists to the language spoken in England during the period extending from 449 to 1100, has four major dialects; the distribution of the dialects reflects the settlements made by the various Teutonic tribes who, during the fifth century, overran the British Celts and settled in England.[4] Northumbrian, spoken in the region north of the Humber River, and Mercian, spoken in the area between the Humber and the Thames, are the dialects of the Angles, who came from what are now Germany and Denmark. Similarly, Kentish is the dialect of the Jutes, who settled in the southeastern part of England, and West Saxon is the dialect of the Saxons, who inhabited the southwestern portion of the country. The majority of extant Old English literature is written in the West Saxon dialect:

Hēr AEþelstan cing eorla drihten,
In that year AEthelstan King (of) earls lord

beorna beaggifa, and his broþor ēac,
(of) men ring-giver and his brother also

Eadmund aeþeling, ealdorlangne tīr
Edmund prince long-lasting glory

gesloggen æt sake sweorda ecggum
gained by fighting at war (of) swords (with) edges

embe Brunnanburh; bordweall clufan,
Around Brunanburgh wall of shields split

---

[4] Remnants of the language of the early British Celts (the Britons, Scots, and Picts) are evident in names of places, such as Thames, Esk, Dover, and Wye.

heowan heaþolinda hamora lāfum
hewn war-lindens (of) hammers (with) leavings

eaforan Edweardes; swa him geæþele wæs
children (of) Edward so (to) them fighting was

fram cneomagum þæt hie æt campe oft
concerning kinsmen that they at battle often

wið laora gehwane land ealgodan,
against (of) foes each land defended

hord and hamas.
treasure and homes[5]

The translation follows: 'In that year, Æthelstan the King, lord of earls, ring-giver of men, and his brother also, Edmund the prince, gained long-lasting glory by fighting at war with the edges of swords around Brunanburgh; the children of Edward split the wall of shields, the hewn war-lindens, with the leaving of hammers (i.e., swords); so it was fitting to them, concerning their kinsman that they at battle often defended the land, the treasure and their homes, against each of foes.'

The preceding passage is taken from one of the great Old English patriotic war poems, "The Battle of Brunanburgh." The word order of the passage differs somewhat from that of Modern English; this is because Old English is a synthetic language, or one in which word relationships are indicated primarily by means of inflectional endings rather than by word order and function words. For example, the noun eorla is glossed 'of earls' because the inflectional ending, -a, indicates that it is genitive plural.

The alphabet used during the Old English period is the Roman alphabet used today with the addition of a few runes, Germanic characters retained to represent sounds for which there are no symbols in the Roman alphabet. The graphemes representing the consonant sounds in Old English are as follows: b, c, d, f, g, ȝ, h, l, m, n, p, r, s, t, þ, ð, ƿ, x. The runes *þ* and ð are used interchangeably to represent the initial sounds in *there* (intervocalically) and *think* (initially); ƿ is a rune used in manuscripts for *w*, and *ȝ* is used interchangeably with *g*. With the following exceptions, the remaining symbols represent the sounds attributed to them in Modern English: *c* represents the sound [k], as in *cat*; f represents the sound [f], as in *fat*, in initial position and [v], as in *voice*, intervocalically; *s* represents the sound [s], as in *Sue*, in initial position and the sound [z], as in *zero*, between vowels; *g* (or *ȝ*) indicates either the sound of modern consonantal *y* or that of the German gutteral *g*; *x* represents the sound [ks], as in *exhibition*. The Old English long vowels are *ā*, as in *father*; *ǣ*, as in *fairy*; *ē*, as in *obey*; *ī*, as in the final syllable of *machine*; *ō*, as in note; *ū*, as in *boot*; *ȳ*, as in German *Schüler*. The short vowels, *a*, *æ*, *e*, *i*, *o*, *u*, and *y*, are pronounced as in *artistic*, *cat*, *get*, *pick*, *dog*, *pull*, and *Münster* (German), respectively. The diphthongs, *ēa*, *ēo*, *īe*, *īo*, are falling diphthongs, i.e., the first element of the diphthong is accented.[6]

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[5] This passage is taken from "The Battle of Brunanburgh" in Old English Handbook, ed. Marjorie Anderson and Blanche Williams, (Cambridge, Mass., 1963), p. 253. The translation has been made from the glossary in that work.

Reference to the Old English alphabet makes it possible for the modern reader to recognize much of the vocabulary in the passage quoted above in spite of the changes which have since taken place. For example, *cing* is recognizable as the predecessor of *king* if it is remembered that *c* in O. E. has the sound [k]. The pronunciation of *f* a [v] between two vowels allows the relationship between O. E. *clufan* and Mn. E. *cloven* to be discerned; similarly, knowing that *eo* in *heowan* is a falling diphthong and that unstressed vowels and syllables tend to be lost allows the reader to see how O. E. *heowan* becomes N. E. *hewn*. Indeed, many words in the passage, such as *broþor* (*brother*), *wæs* (*was*), *hamas* (*homes*), *oft* (*often*), and *sweorda* (*swords*), are easily related to their modern counterparts.

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[6] Marjorie Anderson and Blanche Williams, ed., *Old English Handbook* (Cambridge, Mass., 1935), pp. 10-11.

It may be noticed that several words seem similar in spelling to Modern English words but are not glossed with the common meaning of the similar Modern English word. These are words which have undergone change of meaning. *Wið* (against) and *hord* (treasure) are two of these words; Modern English *with* still may mean 'against' in certain contexts, but may also mean 'alongside of,' 'in the same direction as,' etc. Thus *with* has retained its Old English meaning but also has acquired other meanings which were originally expressed by different words. Likewise, *hoard* may refer to treasure but has come to mean more often a 'collection or amassment of anything of value or utility for safekeeping or future use'; thus the modern idiom is "a hoard of treasure" because the word has become more generalized in meaning than its Old English predecessor.

The quoted passage contains several words which do not seem familiar to the modern reader and which are glossed with two words; these words, such as *heaþolinda*, *ealdorlangne*, *beaggifa*, and *bordweall*, are compounded from two Old English words. The Old English word-stock, although not as large as that of Modern English, is extremely expressive because of the Anglo-Saxon practice of combining words to form new words. For example, Wrenn notes in his edition of the *Beowulf*[7] nineteen different compounds using *heaþo*, 'battle,' as the first element. Word compounding has remained a characteristic of the English, although not to as great a degree since borrowing from other languages has become prevalent.

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[7] C. L. Wrenn, *Beowulf with the Finnesburg Fragment* (Boston, 1953), pp. 261-262.

The Middle English Period (1100-1500)

With the coronation of William the Conqueror came the substitution of Norman French nobility for English nobility. Indeed, almost all important positions in the kingdom were eventually filled by the French. Norman French was the language of the court and of official business; it was, therefore, the prestige language. However, because English had been firmly established as the national language before the Norman Conquest, it was still the language of the commoners. Thus there were two important influences at work upon the language: the changes that were brought about by the presence of French courtiers and the changes that resulted because English became the language of the uneducated. The changes in the Middle English period affected both the grammar and vocabulary of the language. Some of the changes had begun before the Conquest, but they were greatly accelerated by its influence; others began after the invasion of the Northmen.

Losses resulted from: (1) two languages living side by side, (2) little conservative influence from writing and education, (3) an awareness that form made no difference in an already frozen word-order.

Sing.	O. E.	M. E.
Nominative	stān	stōn
Genitive	stānes	stōnes
Dative	stāne	stōne
Accusative	stān	stōn
Plural		
Nominative	stānān	stōnes
Genitive	stāna	stōnes
Dative	stānum	stōnes
Accusative	stānān	stōnes

Along with the loss of many inflectional endings in Middle English, internal vowel changes, such as the change of Old English *stān* to Middle English *stōn*, also occurred. This kind of change, phonetic change, had already begun late in the Old English period and would have happened, although perhaps less quickly, without the Norman Conquest.

The imprint of the Norman Conquest was made most noticeably upon the vocabulary and the spelling of the language. Understandably, some French vocabulary from the Norman overlords filtered into the English word-stock; such words as *baron*, *servant*, *messenger*, *feast*, *largess*, *govern*, *empire*, *adjourn*, *religion*, *abbey*, *sermon*, *havoc*, *apparel*, *embroidery*, *poison*, and *image* came into the language through the Norman French.[8] Likewise, Norman French scribes frequently altered Middle English spelling by analogy with their own ways of spelling certain sounds. For example, they frequently spelled the sound [u], spelled with a *u* in Old English, with the letters *ou*: thus O. E. *hūs*> M. E. *hous*> N. E. *house*. The initial sound in *what*, spelled *hw* in Old English, was reversed by the French scribes; thus O. E. *hwy*> M. E. *why*> E. *why*. Another change made by scribes was the insertion of *i* before *e* in some words: thus O. E. *feld*> M. E. *field*, and O. E. *þēf*> M. E. *thief*.

The changes occurring in Middle English were not uniform throughout England because the language itself was not uniform. The dialectal differences appeared not only in the spoken language but also in the written language. Middle English was divided into four dialects: Northern, East Midland, West Midland, and Southern. The Northern dialect area covered the area north of the Humber; East and West Midland speech together extended over the area between the Humber and the Thames; Southern occupied the area south of the Thames. In addition to these four major areas, a somewhat different form of Southern Middle English was spoken in Kent. Elements from each of the Middle English dialects have been retained in Modern English; for example, the third person plural pronoun *they* developed from the Northern form *þai*, whereas the feminine singular *she* came from the Midland form *sche* or *she*.

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[8] Albert C. Baugh, *A History of the English Language* (New York, 1957), pp. 201-209.

The reinstatement of English as a national language during the Middle English period began in the thirteenth century when the English were beginning to react against the many foreign influences in their country. By the fourteenth century, English was again the language of the nobility, of law, and of literature. London speech, containing elements of all the dialects, was preferred for cultivated use. The following excerpt from Chaucer's "Prologue to the *Canterbury Tales*" is written in the London dialect.

A clerk ther was of Oxenford also,
a clerk there was of Oxford also

That unto logyk hadde longe ygo.
who unto logic had long betaken himself

As leene was his horse as is a rake,
as lean was his horse as is a rake

And he nas nat right fat, I undertake,
and he was not not very fat I assert

But looked holwe, and thereto sobrely.
but looked hollow and thereto soberly

Ful thredbare was his overeste courtepy;
Full threadbare was his outermost short cloak

For he hadde geten hym yet no benefice,
for he had obtained (for) himself yet no benefice

Ne was so worldly for to have office.
Nor was so worldly as to have (secular) office

For hym was levere have at his beddes heed.
for him it was dearer to have at his bed's head

Twenty bookes, clad in black or reed,
twenty books bound in black or red

of Aristotle and his philosophie,
of Aristotle and his philosophy

Than robes riche, or fithele, or gay sautrie
than robes rich or fiddle or gay psaltery[9]

The translation follows:

'There was also a clerk of Oxford,
who had betaken himself unto logic a long
time ago.
His horse was as lean as is a rake,
and he was not very fat, I assert,
But looked hollow, and thereto soberly.
Full threadbare was his outermost short
cloak;
For he had not yet obtained for himself
a benefice [church office],
Nor was so worldly as to have [secular] office.
For him it was dearer to have at his bed's head
Twenty books, bound in black or red,
of Aristotle and his philosophy,
Than rich robes, or fiddle, or gay psaltery.'

Although some inflectional endings, were used in Chaucer's time, the syntax was close to that of current usage. However, it is interesting to note Chaucer's use of the double negative for emphasis, as nas nat (literally, 'he was not not'), a practice which did not become offensive until long after Shakespeare's lifetime.

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[9] Geoffrey Chaucer, "Prologue to the Canterbury Tales" in A. C. Baugh, Chaucer's Major Poetry (New York, 1963), p. 244.

Modern English Period (1500-1800)

In the fifteenth century, the language again was to undergo change, although the nature of its modification was to be somewhat different from that of the Middle English period. Of primary importance in this process was the influence of the rise of the middle class and the development of social consciousness thereafter. People who were attempting to cross class lines became increasingly aware of the importance of language as an integral part of social designation. The result was the acceptance of upper class language as a standard to be maintained. Education, more readily available, has a conservative influence on the standards in language. The acceptance and maintenance of a standard speech tended to fix grammatical patterns, thus slowing the process of rapid grammatical change begun in the Middle English period.

In the Modern English period, some major changes in pronunciation took place. Words which were bisyllabic in Chaucer's speech, such as looked and bookes, weakened their final syllables and became monosyllables. The palatal sound represented by gh (such as still is heard in German tragen) was lost, although the symbols were still used in writing. The values of vowel symbols were changed in what is known as the Great Vowel Shift; thus the e, which had originally designated the vowel sound in mate, came to represent the sound in me. These changes in pronunciation took place after spelling had been somewhat fixed by printing, so that "silent letters" remained in the written words and many modern words were spelled, although not pronounced, as in Middle English.

The word-stock, or vocabulary, of English was greatly enlarged during this time. The Elizabethans in particular were fascinated with foreign words and borrowed many to enrich their vocabularies. Shakespeare himself was liberal in his use of borrowed words, as well as quite creative in "verbing it with nouns," that is, changing the function of words already in the language. Many of the words adopted by the Elizabethans were retained as vital parts of the language. Such words as hereditary, external, habitual, atmosphere, autograph, malignant, disrespect, and consolidate[10] were originally borrowed by the Elizabethans and were sometimes subjects of controversy among them.

Another development of the language which began in the sixteenth century and moved to completion in the end of the sixteenth century was the use of the progressive form of the verb. This construction was almost nonexistent in Old English and Middle English; the use of progressive forms, which began with such expressions as "he is laughing" and extended later to the passive construction, such as "it is being moved," was one of the most important changes in the Modern English period.

In the eighteenth century, the rise of rationalism as the predominant mode of thinking among scholars made its imprint upon thinking about language. In addition, this was a period of reaction--one which could not allow the liberal use of language which had been encouraged in the Renaissance. In this period, scholars began to feel the necessity of codifying English. The result was a body of rules about grammar and usage which relied upon reason, etymology, and examples from Latin and

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[10] Baugh, A History of the English Language, pp. 264-270.

Greek for authority. The theory of the men who were proponents of the movement toward codification was that the language should be "refined" and established in a permanent form. Although there was a basic linguistic fallacy in their thinking that a spoken language could be established in a permanent form and although many of the decisions about disputed points of usage were arbitrary and based on personal prejudices, many matters about the language were settled and have since become established. In the same time that such men as Dean Swift and Bishop Lowth were codifying matters of grammar and usage according to their authorities (reason, etymology, Latin, and Greek), other scholars were championing use as the criterion of authority, a doctrine usually considered most sound linguistically. The chief advocate of this doctrine was Joseph Priestly; his theory, perhaps reflecting the dictum of Horace that "use is the sole arbiter and norm of speech," set up current usage as the standard of speech. In his _Rudiments of English Grammar_ (1761), Priestly stated: "It must be allowed that the custom of speaking is the original and only just standard of any language."[11]

In the eighteenth century the effect of expansion in trade and in contacts with other parts of the world was seen in English vocabulary. In America contact with Indians, Spaniards, and Portuguese brought many new words into the language: _wigwam_, _toboggan_, _tomahawk_, _chili_, _chocolate_, _tomato_, _canoe_, _quinine_, _tobacco_ are a few of these. English trade with India caused the borrowing of such words as _bandana_, _calico_, _verandah_, _indigo_, and _seersucker_. Such borrowings from other tongues provided English with its cosmopolitan vocabulary.

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[11] _Ibid_., p. 341.

Late Modern English (Nineteenth Century and After)

Perhaps the most significant factor at work upon the language in the modern period has been the rapid development of science and technology. According to A. C. Baugh, "periods of great enterprise and activity seem generally to be accompanied by a corresponding increase in new words."[12] Every field of science has contributed words which have become part of the general vocabulary: _anesthetic_, _aspirin_, _iodine_, _hormones_, from medicine; _election_, _atomic energy_, from physics; _benzine_, _cyanide_, _radium_, from chemistry; _egocentric_, _extravert_, _introvert_, from psychology. Likewise, inventions require new terms, as may be illustrated by the wealth of terms which have come with the automobile, the airplane, radio, and television.

The need for rapid enrichment of the word stock of English in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries has been filled in several ways. The "borrowing" habit, well established by this time, has provided one means of incorporating new words into the language; as English speaking people adopted ideas or innovations from other people, they usually adopted the foreign term which designated them: _chop suey_, _vodka_, _chauffeur_ are examples. A second means of filling the need for new terms is the oldest means of increasing vocabulary in the English language--compounding. Such words as _hitchhike_, _teen-age_, _searchlight_, and _lipstick_ are modern words formed in the manner used by speakers of

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[12] _Ibid_., p. 357.

Old English. An extension of this mode of word-formation is evident in compounds made from Latin and Greek roots. Reliance upon the classical languages as a source for new words is a method used frequently in devising scientific terminology.

Enrichment of the word-stock of English is accomplished not only by incorporating foreign words into the language, but also by coining new words and adapting existing words. Coinages are frequently formed by analogy with existing words; for example, addressograph is analogous in form to such words as autograph and phonograph. Less frequently, new words which are not suggested by previously existing words are created; Kodak and Nylon are examples of the creation of new roots.[13] Moreover, words or the meanings associated with words are often altered. Such words as transcontinental, trans-airways, dissassemble, and supermarket vary in semantic meaning from their stems. Similarly, such words as finalize, sanitize, lengthwise, and crosswise differ in part of speech, or grammatical meaning, from their stems.[14]

Meanings associated with particular words are sometimes altered through the process of semantic change. Some of the types of semantic change are elevation, degradation, folk etymology, generalization, and specialization. Elevation in the meaning of a word occurs when that word no longer denotes something considered common or humble; conversely, degradation of meaning occurs when a word no longer denotes something valued positively by society. An example of elevation is offered by the words praise and nice; the former originally meant 'to put a value or price on,' the latter, 'simpleminded.' Hussy, which once meant

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[13] Pyles, op. cit., pp. 262-263.

[14] Ibid., pp. 267-276.

'housewife,' and reek, which once meant 'smoke' or 'smell,' are examples of degradation of meaning. Folk etymology is the process by which a speech community borrows a word, but, losing sight of its original meaning, reforms the word. The substitutions of sparrowgrass or speargrass for asparagus and cramberry for cranberry are results of folk etymology. Specialization and generalization occur when the scope of a meaning changes. In the former, the word becomes specialized or restricted in its application; in the latter, the meaning of a word is extended. Liquor, originally referring to any fluid, now usually denotes alcoholic beverages. Meat, which once meant 'food,' is now more specialized in meaning. The word place has generalized in reference from its early meaning, 'a wide street,' to its present denotation of any geographic point. Barn, originally 'a storehouse for barley,' has extended in scope so that it is now a storehouse for any grain and for livestock.

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LANGUAGE: STRUCTURE AND USAGE

MORPHOLOGY

Fourth Grade

EXPECTED READINESS

The child

... recognizes and knows the meaning of the noun inflections -s and 's.

... recognizes and knows the meaning of verb inflections -s, -ing, -ed.

... recognizes some words as compound words.

... knows some of the forms and functions of the verb be.

... recognizes and understands the meaning of prefixes, re- and un-.

OBJECTIVES

The child will

... recognize variations in plural forms of nouns.

... understand function of adjectives.

... understand the change in meaning of the adjective when -er or -est is added.

... recognize irregularities in verb forms.

... identify adverbs as modifiers of verbs.

... understand the change in meaning of an adverb when the inflection -er or -est is added.

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

1. To recognize variation in plural forms of nouns.

Example: Develop with children a list of needed supplies for a class project such as a listing of art supplies. Send the list to the art supply room to fulfill its assigned purpose. Later use it for a study of noun forms.

Copy the list on the board, underline certain nouns, and ask which of the underlined words are singular forms of nouns and which are plural forms.

Supplies needed for 24 boys and girls for Thursday, April 18:

24 boxes of crayons
24 brushes (large, camel's hair)
24 sheets of white drawing paper (18" x 24")
5 cans of paint (1 each of red, yellow, blue, black, white)

As nouns are identified by form or by context, categorize them:

Singular form (Word meaning one of the objects signified)	Plural form (Word meaning more than one of the objects signified)
________	Supplies
________	boys
________	girls
________	boxes
________	crayons
________	brushes
________	sheets
________	cans

Lead children to determine the singular form of the plural nouns listed.

Generalize about the ways of making the plural form of the listed nouns and the meaning of each part of the noun construction:

$$\text{boxes} = \underbrace{\text{box}}_{\text{base word}} + \underline{\text{-es}}$$

$$\text{supplies} = \underbrace{\text{suppl}\overset{\text{i}}{\cancel{\text{y}}}}_{\text{base word}} + \underline{\text{-es}}$$

Use the term inflection to refer to an ending added to words to signify altered meaning. (Example: The inflection -s added to nouns indicates more than one of the things signified, the inflection -ed added to verbs indicates that the action took place in the past.)

Example: Introduce the fact that a few nouns are changed internally; no inflectional ending is added to show the plural. Write on the board two or three illustrations:

Those men are Indians.

The women are Chinese.

Ask children to give the singular form of the underlined nouns.

Example: Introduce the fact that a few nouns do not change at all to show the plural form. The context in which the word is used specifies singular or plural meaning rather than the construction of the noun:

The sheep is in the meadow.

The sheep are in the meadow.

The fish is swimming against the current.

The fish are swimming against the current.

In this case, the analysis of the plural form of the noun is:

Base word + zero.

Summarize by emphasizing the fact that noun plurals are usually the base word + the inflection -s or -es, but that some nouns form plurals in other ways.

2. To understand and identify adjectives.

Example: Review the concept of nouns as a background for introducing adjectives. Write on the board a statement such as this:

A boy walked along a street.

Ask pupils to identify the words which can be classified as nouns. Test the words by trying out endings that fit with the form-class words called nouns: Can -s, or a form of -s, be added to show more than one of the things signified by the word? Can *'s* or a form of *'s*, be added to make the possessive form?

Lead pupils to extend the sentence by telling what kind of boy and what kind of street.

A small boy walked along a quiet street.

A rich boy walked along a busy street.

A fat boy walked along a noisy street.

Call attention to the fact that the words supplied are *describing words* and that each describes the thing signified by a noun:

a *small* boy	a *quiet* street
a *rich* boy	a *busy* street
a *fat* boy	a *noisy* street

Introduce the term *adjective*. Words which describe or limit the things signified by nouns belong to a form-class called *adjectives*:

The *pretty* girl is my friend.

This is a *good* *little* dog.

My *new* dress is *blue*.

I ate *three* cookies.

A *few* people came to the party.

3. To understand the change in meaning of the adjective when the inflection *-er* or *-est* is added.

Example: Call attention to the form of an adjective when a quality belonging to one thing is compared to the same quality belonging to another:

Bob is *tall*.

He is *taller* than I am, but he is not *taller* than Joe.

$$\text{taller} = \underbrace{\text{base word (tall)}}_{\begin{array}{l}\text{Signifies a}\\ \text{quality used to}\\ \text{describe Bob.}\end{array}} + \underbrace{\text{-er}}_{\begin{array}{l}\text{The inflection has}\\ \text{meaning only as it is}\\ \text{attached to a base word.}\\ \text{It indicates that two}\\ \text{things are compared in}\\ \text{terms of the quality sig-}\\ \text{nified by the base word.}\end{array}}$$

Lead pupils to identify things being compared in other sample sentences. Lead them to analyze the adjective, identifying the base word and the inflection:

Is Jane *taller* than she was last year? Is she *heavier*?

Candy is *sweeter* than pickles.

You need a *warmer* sweater for this weather.

She is *smaller* than her sister.

(Call attention to the fact that *she* is a substitute for a noun)

His handwriting was *clearer* when he wrote on the board than when he wrote on paper.

Susan has *fewer* apples than Mary.

Mary has *riper* apples than Susan.

Example: Lead pupils to discover the form of an adjective when several things are compared according to the quality signified by the adjective:

This is my *oldest* dress.

Joe is the *tallest* boy in the room.

Marvin is the *strongest* boy in his Scout Troop.

Lead to an analysis of the adjective form in several samples:

$$\text{Strongest} = \underbrace{\text{base word (strong)}}_{\text{Adjective.}} \quad + \underbrace{\text{-est}}$$

The word signifies a
quality which describes
the person signified
by the noun (Marvin).

The inflection -est is
attached to the adjective
to signify that several
boys have been compared
according to the quality
signified by the base
word (strong).

Harry is the nicest person I know.

Nicest = base word (nice) + -est

Adjective
The word signifies
a quality (nice)
which describes the
person signified
by the noun (Harry).

The inflection -est is
attached to the base
word to indicate that
among all the people
known Harry possesses
the greatest amount of
the quality signified by
the adjective (nice).

Lead pupils to form a generalization:

The form of an adjective is changed to show that a comparison is made.

(1) The inflection -er is added to the adjective when the comparison is between two things.

Al is taller than Joe.

(2) The inflection -est is added to the adjective when one object or group of objects is compared with several others.

Bob is the tallest boy in the class.

4. To recognize irregularities in verb forms.

Example: Review the verb inflections -s, -ing, and -ed. Write several sentences on the board, sentences taken from children's own speech if possible:

John waters the flowers every day. He watered them yesterday and he is watering them now. He has watered them all year.

Mary always erases the board. She erased it this morning and she is erasing it now.

The boys are wasning the brushes. They washed them every day this week.

Analyze the verbs:

$$\text{waters} = \underbrace{\text{base word (water)}}_{\text{verb}} + \underbrace{\text{inflection (-s)}}_{}$$

A word signifying the action of the subject (John).	The inflection -s means that the action signified by the base word takes place regularly over a period of time including the present time.

$$\text{watered} = \underbrace{\text{base word (water)}}_{\text{verb}} + \underbrace{\text{inflection (-ed)}}_{}$$

A word signifying the action of the subject, the noun substitute (he).	The inflection -ed means that the action signified by the base word took place in the past.

$$\text{e (is)} + \text{watering} = \underbrace{\text{base word (water)}}_{\text{verb}} + \underbrace{\text{inflection (-ing)}}_{}$$

A word signifying the action of the subject, the noun substitute.	The inflection -ing means that the action signified by the base word is happening now.

Write a few sentences on the board in which verbs do not follow the regular inflections and lead pupils to discover the irregularities:

Bill's mother drives a Buick.

Last year she drove a Ford.

She was driving a Chevrolet when they moved to this town.

Joe sees a picture show every Saturday while his mother shops.

Last Saturday he saw a Western.

He had seen it once before.

I *sleep* eight hours every night.

He *sleeps* more soundly than I do.

He *slept* through a thunder storm last night.

He has always *slept* soundly.

Lead to a generalization:

Most verbs are inflected by adding *-s*, *-ing*, *-ed* to tell smmething about the action performed (I *walk*; he *walks*; we *are walking*; we *walked*; we *had walked*). A few verbs do not follow this regular pattern.

5. To identify adverbs as modifiers of verbs.

Example: Write on the board several sentences. Lead pupils to identify nouns and verbs:

$\underbrace{\text{I}}_{\text{Noun substitute.}}\ \underbrace{\text{will leave}}_{\text{Auxiliary and verb.}}$ soon.

$\underbrace{\text{I}}_{\text{Noun substitute.}}\ \underbrace{\text{came}}_{\text{Verb.}}$ early.

$\underbrace{\text{John}}_{\text{Noun}}\ \underbrace{\text{works}}_{\text{Verb.}}$ hard.

$\underbrace{\text{He}}_{\text{Noun substitute.}}\ \underbrace{\text{works}}_{\text{Verb.}}$ fast.

Call attention to the words in the sentences which give some information about the action signified by the verbs:

I will leave *soon*.
(The word *soon* tells *when* I will leave.)

I came *early*.
(The word *early* tells *when* I came.

John works hard.
(The word hard tells how John works.)

He works fast.
(The word fast tells how he works.)

Introduce the term adverb as the name of the form-class words which modify or give information about verbs.

6. To understand the change in meaning of an adverb when the inflection -er or -est is added.

Example: Write on the board several sentences, some including non-inflected adverbs; some, the adverb inflection -er; and some, the adverb inflection -est.

Guide pupils in identifying the adverbs and the verbs which they modify. Lead pupils to discover the adverb inflections:

Joe works hard.
He words harder than his brother.
He works hardest when he is paid.

Susan sleeps late every morning.
She slept later than usual today.

That boy runs fast.
He runs faster when he plays ball.
He runs fastest when he is racing.

Select a few inflected adverbs for analysis:

harder = base word (hard) + inflection (-er)

An adverb which gives information about the action signified by the verb.	The inflection -er added to the base word (hard) means that the way the action is performed by one person has been compared to some other situation (in this case, to the way another performs the same action).

hardest = base word (hard) + inflection (-est)

An adverb which gives information about the action signified by the verb.	The inflection -est added to the base word means that the way the action is performed is compared to many situations (in this case, to many other working situations).

Lead the pupils to form a generalization:

Adverbs are inflected by adding -er or -est to show that a comparison is made.

Susan sleeps later than I do. She sleeps latest on Sundays.

Point out that both adjectives and adverbs have the inflected forms -er and -est as comparisons are made. Help pupils to see that there is a distinguishing difference: Adjectives describe or give information about the thing signified by a noun. Adverbs describe or give information about the action signified by a verb.

MORPHOLOGY

Fifth Grade

EXPECTED READINESS

The child

... can identify words classified as nouns, verbs, adjectives, and some adverbs (adverbs which modify verbs).

... recognizes and knows the function of noun inflections -s and 's.

... recognizes and knows the function of verb inflections -s, -ing, -ed.

... recognizes and knows the function of adjective and adverb inflections -er and -est.

... recognizes and understands the meaning of some prefixes.

OBJECTIVES

The child will

... understand the meaning of the terms suffix and derived words, and will understand the meaning relationship between a base word and its suffix.

... understand that a derived word frequently belongs to a word-form class (part of speech) different from the class of the original word from which it was made.

... recognize and understand the comparative and superlative forms of derived adjectives and adverbs.

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

1. To understand the meaning of the terms suffix and derived words; to understand the meaning relationship between a base word and its suffix; and to understand that the addition of a suffix often changes the classification of a word.

Example: Call attention to words made from other words in our language. Write a few sentences on the board to illustrate:

One who sings is called a singer.

A person who talks a lot is a talker.

Explain that the -er is called a suffix. When -er is added to the end of a verb it changes the verb to a noun. The new word (singer, talker) is a derived word, a word that is derived or made from another word.

Elicit other derived words from pupils. Place their words in context:

What is a person who fights called? (fighter)
This fighter has won every match.

What do we call a person who dances? (dancer)
She was the best dancer at the party.

We erase the board with what? (eraser)
The eraser fell from the chalktray.

Guide pupils in determining the form-class to which each of the derived words belongs to see if the derived word is a noun. Test the words by applying the noun test (can -s or a form of -s be added to show more than one of the thing signified? Can 's be added to show possession?)

sings (verb)	singer (noun)
talks (verb)	talker (noun)
fights (verb)	fighter (noun)
dances (verb)	dancer (noun)
erase (verb)	eraser (noun)

Analyze the derived words by examining the meaning of word parts:

singer	=	base word (sing)	+	-er
Derived word (Noun)		Verb, means "to produce vocal music."		Suffix--It means "the one who ____." It changes the verb to a noun. The new word, noun, refers to the person who performs the action signified by the base word.

Example: Lead pupils to discover that a suffix may be used to make a noun into an adjective:

Her beauty caused everyone to look at her.
She has beautiful hair.

Tom's dog has faith in him.
Tom has a faithful dog.

I have a pain in my arm.
My arm is painful.

Analyze the derived words. Determine the meaning of the word parts.

$$\underbrace{\text{beautiful}}_{\substack{\text{Derived word}\\\text{(adjective).}}} = \underbrace{\text{base word (beaut}\overset{i}{\cancel{\text{y}}}\text{)}}_{\substack{\text{Noun--means}\\\text{loveliness.}}} + \underbrace{\text{-ful}}_{\substack{\text{Suffix--means "full}\\\text{of" or possessing}\\\text{that which is referred}\\\text{to by the base word.}}}$$

Example: Lead pupils to discover that a suffix may be used to change an adjective into a noun:

He is a sick boy.
Sickness caused him to miss school.

She is a kind person.
Kindness is her most outstanding quality.

Ask pupils to find the adjective from which other derived words (nouns) are made:

His cleverness won him many friends.
The baby enjoyed the softness of the blanket.
There is a look of happiness in his eyes.

Analyze some of the derived words for meaning of the word parts:

$$\underbrace{\text{sickness}}_{\substack{\text{Derived}\\\text{word (noun).}}} = \underbrace{\text{base word (sick)}}_{\substack{\text{Adjective--means}\\\text{"not well."}}} + \underbrace{\text{-ness}}_{\substack{\text{Suffix--changes the}\\\text{adjective to a noun,}\\\text{denotes a "condition}\\\text{or a state of being."}}}$$

Example: Lead pupils to discover that a suffix may be used to make a verb from an adjective:

The kitten has *soft* fur.
This cream *softens* my hands.
She *softened* her hair by using a special shampoo.
Indians *softened* leather by rubbing it.

softened =	base word (soft) +	-en +	-ed
Derived word (verb)	Adjective--means "yielding to pressure," or "not hard."	Suffix--changes the adjective to a verb; signifies action needed to produce the quality signified by the base word.	Inflectional ending--signifies that the time of the action is past.

Example: Lead pupils to discover that a suffix may be used to make an adverb from an adjective:

She spoke *softly*. (soft + *-ly*)
Tom works *quietly*. (quiet + *-ly*)
Elizabeth played *happily* with her friends. (happ$\overset{i}{\cancel{y}}$ + *-ly*)

2. To understand the comparative and superlative forms of derived adjectives.

Example: Review the comparative and superlative forms of common adjectives. Write several sentences on the board to use as basis for discussion. Call attention to the inflectional endings:

Ben wrote a *short* story.

It is *shorter* than Joe's story.

In fact, it is the *shortest* story in the whole class.

Susan has a *bigger* book than Mary.

The carpenter bought the *cheapest* tools in town.

Introduce and discuss the fact that derived adjectives differ from common adjectives in the comparative and superlative forms.

The princess is a *beautiful* girl.
(Beautiful is a derived word. Beaut$\overset{i}{\cancel{y}}$ + *ful*.)
She is *more beautiful* than her mother.
She is one of the *most beautiful* girls in Europe.

John is wasteful in his use of paper. He is more wasteful than he once was.

Margaret is the most helpful person I know.
Tommy is less helpful at home since he began his paper route.
John is the least helpful member of the family.

Our washing machine is our most useful appliance. The television may be the least useful but it is the most enjoyable.

Analyze some of the adjective constructions to identify meaning parts:

most helpful =	most	and base word (help) +	-ful
Derived word. (adjective).	Function word--indicates that one quality of a person has been compared with the same quality observed in many people.	Verb--means "to give assistance"	Suffix--changes the verb to an adjective; means having the ability to do the action signified by the base word.

Conclude the discussion by leading pupils to form a generalization:

The comparative form of common adjectives is base word + -er (taller). The comparative form of derived adjectives is the word more (less) and base word + derivational suffix (more helpful).

The superlative form of common adjectives is base word + -est (tallest). The superlative form of derived adjectives is the word most (least) and base word + derivational suffix (most helpful).

3. To understand the comparative and superlative forms of derived adverbs.

Review the understanding of adverbs as modifiers of verbs. Review the comparative and superlative forms of common adverbs. Write sentences on the board and discuss:

Sally talks fast.
(The word fast gives information about the performance or the action signified by the verb.)

She speaks faster than most of us.

(the word faster gives information about the action signified by the verb and indicates that this quality of action has been compared to the same quality of the same action of another group of poeple.)

Susan talks fastest when she is excited.

(The word fastest gives information about the action signified by the verb and shows that this quality of action has been compared to the same quality of the same action in many situations.)

Introduce and discuss the fact that derived adverbs differ from common adverbs in showing comparison. Write illustrative sentences:

The old man walks slowly.

He walks more slowly than he did a year ago.

He walks most slowly when he is tired.

Sometimes Al works diligently.

He works less diligently when it is late. He works least diligently when he is doing something he dislikes.

Analyze the meaning parts of the adverb constructions:

more slowly	= more	and slow	+ ly
Derived word (Adverb).	Function word—used to show comparison between two situations.	Base word--adjective, used to modify a noun; signifies a quality meaning "not fast"	Suffix--changes the adjective to an adverb; indicates that the quality identified by the adjective has been used to give information about the action signified by a verb. (action happens in a slow manner.)

least diligently	=	least	and	diligent	+	ly
Derived word (adverb).		Function word --used to show that a comparison has been made among many situations.		Adjective --means "industrious"		Suffix--changes the adjective to an adverb; indicates that the quality identified by the adjective has been used to give information about the action signified by verb.

Conclude the discussion by leading pupils to state a generalization:

The comparative form of common adverbs is base word + -er. (He works harder than he once did.) The comparative form of derived adverbs is the word more (or less) and the base word + derivational suffix. (That old man walks more slowly than he did a few years ago.)

The superlative form of common adverbs is base word + -est (The boy who arrived latest was John.) The superlative form of derived adverbs is the word most (or least) and base word + suffix. (Elizabeth plays most frequently with Mary.

MORPHOLOGY

Sixth Grade

EXPECTED READINESS

The child

... can identify words classified as nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs.

... recognizes and knows the meaning of the noun inflections -s and 's.

... recognizes and knows the meaning of verb inflections -s, -ing, -ed.

... recognizes and knows the meaning of adjective and adverb inflections -er and -est.

... understands the meaning of the terms prefix, suffix, and derived words.

... understands meaning-parts and meaning relationships between parts of derived words.

... understands that a derived word frequently belongs to a word-form class different from the class of the original word from which it was made.

... understands the functions of the words more and most, less and least, as they are used with adjectives or adverbs.

OBJECTIVES

The child will

... understand the meaning of the term affix.

... understand the meaning of parts of derived words constructed with more than one affix, and the meaning of the parts as they relate to each other within the derived word.

... understand the difference between inflected words and derived words.

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

1. To understand the meaning of the term affix.

Example: Review the concepts of prefix and suffix. Write sentences on the board to illustrate derived words used in context. Guide pupils in determining the word-form class to which the derived word belongs. Lead pupils to analyze the derived words to determine the meaning of word parts in such sentences as the following:

The boy was unhappy when his grandfather moved from the neighborhood.

unhappy	=	un-	+	base word (happy)
Derived word (adjective).		Prefix--means "the opposite of"		Adjective--means "joyous, glad, pleased."

grandfather	=	grand-	+	base word (father)
Derived word (noun).		Prefix--means "a person of the generation older than."		Noun--means "a male parent."

neighborhood	=	base word (neighbor)	+	-hood
Derived word (Noun).		Noun--means "a person who lives near another."		Suffix--means "the whole group of--"

Discuss the fact that both prefixes and suffixes are additions to a base word. Introduce the term affix as a general term which includes both prefixes and suffixes. Provide practice in identifying affixes and in determining whether an affix changes a word to a different form-class.

2. To understand the meaning of word parts in derived words constructed with more than one affix, and to understand the meaning of the parts as they relate to each other within the derived word.

Example: Write examples on the board and lead the pupils to identify the base word and the order of addition of affixes:

The boy read the poem in a nonrhythmic voice.

nonrhythmic	=	non-	+	stem (rhythmic)
Derived word (adjective).		Prefix-- means "not."		Adjective-- is itself a derived word:

base (rhythm)	+	-ic
Noun--means "the regular rise and fall of sounds."		Suffix-- attached to a noun it changes the noun to an adjective; means "consisting of."

Deserters are unpatriotic.

deserters	=	base word (desert)	+	-er	+	-s
Derived word (plural form of noun).		Verb--means "to leave without intending to return."		Suffix-- changes the verb to a noun; means "the one who--".		Inflection-- means more than one of the thing signified by the noun.

unpatriotic	=	un-	+	word stem (patriotic)
Derived word (adjective).		Prefix-- means "the opposite of--."		Adjective-- is a derived word:

base (patriot)	+	-ic
Noun; means "one who loves, supports and defends his country."		Suffix-- changes the noun to an adjective; means "having the nature of--."

Lead pupils to state a generalization concerning derived words and their affixes:

Derived words are words to which affixes (prefixes or suffixes or both) are added. Each time an affix is added to a base word a new word is formed and the new word has a different meaning from that of the word from which it was derived.

3. To understand the difference between words and inflected words.

Example: Lead pupils to form generalizations about derived words and inflected words. Compare the two sets of generalizations:

A derived word is a constructed word built from a base word and one or more affixes (prefixes or suffixes). The base word has a meaning of its own and each affix has its own meaning. Sometimes the addition of an affix causes the derived word to become a member of a word-form class different from the class of the base word.

An inflected word is a base word with an ending, or inflection, added. The base word has a meaning of its own, but the inflection has no meaning alone. Added to the base word it changes the meaning of the base word. An inflectional ending added to a base word never changes the word-form class of the base word. The inflected word remains in the same class as the base word.

Lead the children to identify and explain derived words and inflected words in illustrative sentences:

The boys talked in an endless stream of chatter.

$$\underbrace{\text{boys}}_{\substack{\text{Inflected}\\ \text{word--}\\ \text{plural}\\ \text{form of}\\ \text{noun.}}} = \underbrace{\text{base word (boy)}}_{\text{Noun}} + \underbrace{\text{-s}}_{\substack{\text{Inflectional}\\ \text{ending attached to}\\ \text{noun--denotes more}\\ \text{than one of the thing}\\ \text{signified by the base}\\ \text{word.}}}$$

talked	=	base word (talk)	+	-ed
Inflected word--verb, past tense form.		Verb		Inflectional ending--denotes past tense.

endless	=	base word (end)	+	-less
Derived word--adjective		Noun--means "final point."		Suffix--means "without;" changes the noun to an adjective.

chatter	=	base word (chat)	+	-er
Derived word--noun.		Verb--means "to talk informally."		Suffix--means "the thing which..;" changes the verb to a noun.

Example: Lead pupils to discover that a word's construction may include both derivational affixes and inflections:

Governments have changed through the years.

governments	=	base word (govern)	+	-ment
		Verb--means "to rule"		Suffix--means "concrete result of."
		Noun (government)--means "the system of governing."	+	-s
				Inflection--denotes more than one of the thing signified by the noun.

The girls walked hurriedly to the movie.

hurriedly	=	base word (hurry)	+	-ed	+	-ly
		Verb--means "to move quickly."		Inflectional ending--shows that the action took place in the past.		Suffix--changes the verb to an adverb.

THE ENGLISH SENTENCE

Fourth Grade

EXPECTED READINESS

The child

... uses orally the various constructions and patterns of English sentences.

... combines and extends sentences.

... identifies the subject and predicate of simple sentences, and change in word order.

... knows the function of the word and in simple sentences.

OBJECTIVES

The child will

... recognize pronouns.

... recognize noun markers.

... recognize kernel sentences of the patterns: Noun-Verb and Noun-Verb-Complement.

... identify some uses of complementation.

... develop further the concept of modification.

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

1. To recognize pronouns.

Example for all pupils: The teacher writes several pairs of sentences on the board for study and discussion:

The bell rang five minutes ago.
It rang as I came into the room.

The boys played ball at recess.
Do they play ball every day?

Mary and Jane went to the movies.
They saw a good cartoon.

A girl in our class is absent today.
Is she sick?

Children identify the noun substitutes and the nouns for which they are substituting. The term *pronoun* is introduced and pupils see that pronouns function as nouns (pronouns may be subjects of sentences).

2. To recognize *noun markers*.

Example for all pupils: Using the same sentences as in the example above, pupils are introduced to the *noun marker*. Children see that the words *the*, *a*, and *an* are always followed by a noun. Even though pronouns substitute for nouns, the noun marker is not used with them. Students verify this by examining a sample of their own writing done at some previous time.

Example for pupils interested in analysis of language: The teacher guides children in classifying certain words in sample sentences she chooses from their writing.

The *ball* *rolled* under *the* *hedge*.
A little *boy* *ran* to get *it*.
He could not *reach* *it*.

Noun	Verb	Pronoun	Noun Marker
ball	rolled	it (for *ball*)	The (with *ball*)
hedge	ran	He (for *boy*)	the (with *hedge*)
boy	reach	it (for *ball*)	A (with *boy*)

3. To identify kernel sentences in the pattern: *Noun-Verb*.

Example for all pupils: The teacher reviews the concept of predication, the two parts of a sentence relating to each other: the *subject* telling what the sentence is about, and the *predicate* telling what is said about the subject.

Dogs bark.
The dogs bark when strangers come.
The little lost dogs bark sadly.

The teacher designates the words dogs bark as the kernel of each of these sentences, other words in sentences 2 and 3 are describing words only.

Pupils identify the kernel sentence in samples such as the following:

Children sang.
The children sang happily.
The second grade children sang in the assembly program.
The man worked hard.
Every man worked until night.

Children recognize that the kernel sentence in each sample shows the pattern: Noun-Verb.

Example for pupils interested in analysis of language: Pupils will be able to make kernel sentences in the Noun-Verb pattern. The group adds modifiers in the subject and the predicate. In each extended sentence, they underline once the complete subject and the complete predicate. A second underlining indicates the noun or pronoun used as the headword of the subject and the verb used as the headword in the predicate.

When the group has worked for a short time together, each pupil makes a kernel sentence in the Noun-Verb pattern, and gives it to a partner who extends it by adding modifiers.

4. To identify some uses of complementation.

Example for all pupils: Review the pattern Noun-Verb. Pupils give examples of the kernel sentence, and add modifiers to extend it.

The clown laughs.
The funny little clown in the parade laughs all the time.

The teacher writes on the board several sentences which have a *complement* in the predicate.

The dinner was a feast.

Everyone was happy.

Mother washed the dishes.

Jane teased Tabby.

I was tired.

Father seemed asleep.

As she underlines complete subject and predicate, the teacher reads the first sentence, and calls attention to the fact that the sentence is not complete without the word following the verb in the predicate. She underlines *twice* the noun as subject, the verb as predicate, and the word which completes. Each sentence is read, and each is recognized as being incomplete with only the noun and the verb. The teacher leads the class to recognize that these verbs *require* something to complete the meaning. She uses the general term *complement* to designate the needed word, showing its meaning as something which completes.

Pupils may recognize that these complements are not all alike, except in their function to complete. The teacher may wish to indicate that these differences will be clear in later learning.

The pattern of these sentences is described as *Noun-Verb-Complement*.

Example for all pupils: Kernel sentences of the pattern *Noun-Verb* and *Noun-Verb-Complement* are extended by addition of modifiers as the teacher leads the class:

John took my pencil.

John in the next row took my new pencil.

(Notice that the complement *pencil* has a modifier).

The child was happy.

The child who lived next door was always happy as a lark when she awoke.

The girl is my friend.

The girl you saw downtown with me is my best friend.

The cat slept.

The old yellow cat slept before the fire.

Examples for pupils interested in analysis of language: Using statements from children's writing or from their conversation, select sentences with a direct object as the complement.

They drink coffee.

Brother plays golf.

He struck the ball.

The mechanic repairs automobiles.

The children are asked to discover the part of speech of these complements. As they recognize that all are nouns, they examine these sentences to discover what relationship the complements have to the verb. The teacher leads them to see that these complements receive the action of the verb. She supplies the term *direct object* as the term designating such nouns used as complements.

Pupils examine the complements in the sentences of the previous example and find that some of the complements are direct objects; others are nouns but not the receiver of the action; and still others are adjectives.

5. To develop further the concept of modification.

Example for all pupils: Using sentences such as the samples, attention is directed to the added meaning in the modifiers in both subject and predicate.

Man hobbled
A crippled old man hobbled across the street.

Man came.
The young man in the room quickly came over to my desk.

From the understanding of modifiers adding to or changing the meaning of noun in the subject or verb in the predicate, the teacher discusses the difference between the two types of modification. Those words that modify the noun are designated as adjectives, those that modify the verb as adverbs.

Example for all pupils: Establish the understanding that by using adjectives one's meaning becomes clearer. Adjectives describe a noun's referent and limit the noun's referent to make it more specific. Compare the meaning transmitted in the sentences of these groups:

My sister sent me a dress.
My oldest sister sent me a new Easter dress.

The boy went into the house.
The brave little boy went into the haunted house.

A horse ran down the road.
A wild horse ran down the mountainous road.

Example for all pupils: Pupils develop the understanding that by using adverbs one's meaning becomes clearer. Adverbs give information about the action signified by the verb. Examine the meanings of the following sentences. Notice the difference in meaning, difference brought about by the use of an adverb.

The boy walked into the house.
The boy walked fearfully into the house.
The boy walked expectantly into the house.
The boy walked hesitatingly into the house.
The boy walked happily into the house.

Example for all pupils: The teacher introduces the idea that phrases may function as adjectives or as adverbs. Write a short sentence on the board stating the action of one of the pupils:

The girl is reading a newspaper.

Elicit children's aid in making this statement refer more specifically to Beth without using Beth's name:

The girl in the red dress is reading a newspaper.

The girl by the window in the front row is laughing.

Elicit children's aid in making exact statements about actions observed. One child performs some action, others report it:

John got out of his desk and walked to the window.

Billy stooped to the floor and got his pencil.

THE ENGLISH SENTENCE

Fifth Grade

EXPECTED READINESS

The child

- ... uses orally the various constructions and patterns of English sentences.
- ... can combine and extend sentences.
- ... can identify the subject and predicate of simple sentences.
- ... knows the function of the word and in simple sentences.
- ... recognizes pronouns and noun markers.
- ... recognizes kernel sentences of the Noun-Verb and Noun-Verb-Complement patterns as they occur in simple sentences.
- ... has initial understanding of complementation.
- ... has initial understanding of modification.

OBJECTIVES

The child will

- ... extend his understanding of complementation in sentences of the pattern: Noun-Verb-Complement.
- ... understand subordination and the function of prepositions, conjunctions, and pronouns in subordination.
- ... understand coordination and the function of conjunctions in coordination.

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

1. To understand complementation in sentences of the pattern Noun-Verb-Complement.

Example for all pupils: Review the concept of predication.

The jet flew over the town.

Pupils recognize the complete subject, consisting of the headword, the noun jet, and the article the, a noun marker; and the complete predicate, consisting of the headword, the verb flew, and the modifier over the town, a phrase used as an adverb modifying the verb, telling where the jet flew.

The teacher leads the class to recognize that the sentence is complete as the kernel sentence: Jet flew. The phrase modifier is not essential to the structure of the sentence, which is the pattern Noun-Verb.

The pilot flew the jet over his house.

The teacher leads the pupils to see that the kernel of this sentence requires a complement - the noun jet. Pupils recognize the pattern Noun-Verb-Complement.

The pilot is my uncle.

Again the pupils recognize the required complement, the noun uncle.

The jet is noisy.

The required complement in this sentence is recognized as the adjective noisy, which modifies the noun in the subject, jet.

Sentences are suggested by the teacher and the pupils in the pattern Noun-Verb-Complement. It is probable that the majority of pupils will require many more informal experiences with the general concept of complementation before they can distinguish between the varied types and functions of complements.

Example for pupils interested in analysis of language: From the experience of the previous *example*, these pupils will wish to consider the different kinds of complements. The teacher uses the same sample sentences for further learning.

(a) *The jet flew over the town*.

The phrase *over the town* tells where the action of the verb took place; therefore, the phrase functions as an adverb modifying the verb *flew*. The sentence has the pattern *Noun-Verb*.

(b) *The pilot flew the jet over his house*.

In this sentence, pupils recognize the noun *jet* as *completing* the kernel of the sentence, the jet receiving the action of the verb. The noun complement in the predicate which receives the action of the verb is designated the *direct object*. It usually does not have the same referent as the subject noun. Sentences with a direct object as complement are in the pattern *Noun-Verb-Noun*, sometimes with numbers added to show that the two nouns are different: *Noun*^{1}*-Verb-Noun*^{2}.

(c) *The pilot is my uncle*.

Students recognize that this sentence has a noun in the predicate which completes the verb. They are led to discover that this noun *does* have the same referent as the subject noun, and that the verb *does not* refer to an action which could be received by a noun used as a direct object. The teacher introduces the term *linking verb* to designate *is* in this sentence, showing that the predicate noun gives an additional name to the person referred to by the noun in the subject. Such a noun is designated a predicate noun. The sentence follows the pattern: Noun-Verb-Predicate Noun.

(d) The jet is noisy.

The students recognize this complement as an adjective describing the jet, and the teacher suggests that here again is the linking verb, with a word (an adjective) which is related to the referent of the subject noun. The term for the adjective complement is predicate adjective, and the sentence takes the pattern Noun-Verb-Predicate Adjective.

Sentences with these three types of complements are used for practice in distinguishing the three patterns.

1. Buicks are good automobiles.
2. The earth is round.
3. Tom is my friend.
4. He hit the ball.
5. My shoes are new.
6. These red flowers are roses.
7. Mother cooked dinner.
8. The little kitten is sick.
9. Aunt Estelle brought a pie to Mother.
10. The mayor called the meeting.
11. Baseball is a good game.

2. To understand subordination and the function of prepositions, conjunctions, and pronouns in subordination.

Example for all pupils: The teacher writes on the board a series of simple sentences.

(a) The dog lived in the mountains.
Men were lost in the mountains.
They had no food.
The dog carried food to them.

The class suggests ways to combine the sentences.

> The dog that lived in the mountains carried food to the hungry men who were lost.

The teacher calls attention to the ways they have used the information in each sentence. The kernel of the new sentence is The dog carried food.

Pupils locate this same kernel in the last sentence of the original set. All the other information is included in the modifiers as follows:

Kernel Modifiers

dog: That lived in the mountains
lived: in the mountains
carried: to the men who were lost without food
men: who were lost without food
lost: without food
food:

Each of the modifiers is now related to an important part of the kernel sentence, and is subordinated (sub- means under or below; ordinated- means ordered or in order).

(b) Out school has a custodian.
His name is Mr. Cato.
He keeps the building in order.
Children scattered paper in the hall.
He came to our room.
He talked to us.

When children scattered paper in the hall, Mr. Cato, the custodian of our school, talked to us in our room about keeping the building in order.

The class finds the kernel in this long sentence:

Mr. Cato talked.

This kernel draws its subject noun from the second sentence and its predicate verb from the last. Other information from the original set of sentences is included in modifiers as follows:

Kernel Modifiers

Mr. Cato: the custodian of our school
custodian: of our school
talked: When children scattered paper in the hall
scattered: in the hall
: to us
: in our room
: about keeping the building in order
keeping: in order

Each of these modifiers is subordinated to an important part of the kernel sentence.

From the two examples of subordination, the teacher calls to the attention of pupils the fact that most of these modifiers - groups of words - are introduced by a function word: from the sentence in (a), *who*, *in*, *who*, *without*; from (b), *of*, *when*, *in*, *to*, *in*, *about*, *in*. The pupils will recognize the repetition in these lists. The teacher calls attention to these words as occurring very frequently in oral and written language. Pupils may wish to make a count of the number of times on a page of any book the most usual words occur: *in*, *of*, *to*.

The words *in*, *of* and *to* function to introduce a grouping of words used as a modifier. They might be called subordinators - their function is to show that the words following them are not the main part of the sentence, but are under or less important than the main words.

The teacher calls attention to certain of the function words (in, of, to, about, without) and the modifying phrases they introduce as subordinate. These are prepositions, usually followed by a noun or noun substitute.

Example for all pupils: The teacher puts on the board the sentences previously used.

(a) The dog *who lived in the mountains* carried food *to the men who were lost without food*.

Who lived in the mountains is a group of words which modifies the headword *dog*. This group of words is itself in the form of a sentence, and can be shown to have *predication* and *modification* and *subordination* within it.

who *lived in the mountains*

The subject is *who*, a pronoun standing for the noun *dog* in the kernel sentence. The predicate is *lived in the mountains* with the verb *lived* as the headword. The phrase *in the mountains* modifies the verb *lived*, and is subordinated (introduced) by the preposition *in*. Pupils may recall that this sentence was made by combining several simpler sentences, one of which read: The dog lived in the mountains. This original sentence is now used as an adjective modifying *dog*. Pupils draw the generalization that some groups of words used as modifiers are themselves "sentences within sentences." The teacher uses the word *clause* to refer to such modifiers. This one is introduced and subordinated by the pronoun *who*.

(b) *When children scattered paper in the hall*, the custodian talked to us.

This subordinate clause was also made a part of a larger sentence by combining. The clause is used as an adverb to modify the verb *talked*, and is introduced by *when*. This subordinator is a conjunction, joining the less important clause to the main sentence. Such *subordinating conjunctions* occur in many sentences.

In the sentences below, pupils identify the modifiers and the subordinating elements which introduce them.

(c) I will go with you *if Mother will let me*.

(d) *When I save enough money* I will buy a new bicycle.

(e) You may play *as soon as you finish your work*.

(f) The boy *who sits in this desk* is my brother.

(g) I saw the picture *that you painted*.

(h) We went *to the circus* *after school*.

Example for all pupils: From experiences with subordination introduced by prepositions in the previous *example*, pupils select material from books or their own writing and identify prepositions. Each chooses examples that he will present to the group, showing the prepositional phrase as modifying some word in the sentence, stating its use as an adverb or adjective. Sample sentences:

(a) The umpire behind the batter yelled, "Out."

The noun umpire is modified by behind the batter, a phrase used as adjective and introduced by the preposition behind.

(b) The crowded stands yelled at the umpire.

The verb yelled is modified by at the umpire, a phrase used as adverb and introduced by the preposition at.

(c) Other sentences for practice:

The witch in a long black dress flew over the town on a broomstick.
He sat on the stool behind the door.
The boys at the back table painted a mural on wrapping paper.

3. To understand coordination and the function of conjunctions in coordination.

Example for all pupils: From pupils' conversations and writing, the teacher notes uses of conjunctions. She writes sample statements on the board for study.

(a) John and I worked that problem correctly.
We worked and checked it.
Where are my crayons and paper?
I left them and my scissors right here.

As the teacher underlines the words connected by and, she indicates by her voice that the terms coordinated are equal and alike. The line below and above and is intended to represent its function as "joining together" two like elements in the sentence. Pupils consider what parts of the sentence are thus coordinated.

John and I are two subjects, noun and pronoun. Worked and checked are both predicate verbs. Crayons and paper are both subject nouns, the question being in inverted order. Them and scissors are both direct objects of the verb *left*.

The teacher makes the generalization that those items coordinated by *and* are parallel or equal in their use in the sentence. Children are asked to identify the sentence elements coordinated by conjunctions. Sample sentences:

We played *in the house* *and* *in the yard*.

Both are prepositional phrases used as adverbs to modify *played*.

We cooked *hamburgers* *and* *hotdogs*.

Both are nouns in the predicate, used as complements - direct objects.

The princess was *tall* *and* *beautiful*.

Both are adjectives in the predicate, modifying the subject *princess*, used as complements or predicate adjectives.

THE ENGLISH SENTENCE

Sixth Grade

EXPECTED READINESS

The child

... uses orally the various constructions and patterns of the English sentence.

... combines and extends sentences.

... identifies the subject and predicate of sentences.

... recognizes nouns, verbs, pronouns, noun markers, prepositions, and conjunctions, and the functions in the sentence.

... identifies kernel sentences of the patterns: Noun-Verb, Noun^1-Verb-Noun^2, Noun-Verb-Predicate Noun and Noun-Verb-Predicate Adjective.

OBJECTIVES

The child will

... identify intensifiers or qualifiers as function words.

... recognize sentences of the pattern Expletive-Verb-Noun.

... understand the term construction and identify constructions within sentences.

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

1. To recognize qualifiers or intensifiers.

Example for all pupils: The teacher reviews the concept of adjectives as modifiers of nouns and adverbs as modifiers of verbs. She introduces the idea that a speaker sometimes wishes to stress or intensify the quality described by a modifier. There are some words which serve this purpose. The word very intensifies the amount of prettiness or smallness in the following sentences:

She is a very pretty girl.
That is a very small dog.

The words more and most also function as intensifiers:

He was more careful after the accident.
He was most careful as he climbed steps.

Intensifiers or qualifiers function with adverbs, as well as with adjectives, to give additional information about a quality named:

He walked very slowly.
He arrived somewhat early.

She answered my letter quite promptly.
Mr. Jones replied more hesitatingly than usual.

2. To recognize the sentences of the pattern Expletive-Verb-Noun.

Example for all pupils: The teacher reviews sentence patterns N-V, N^1-V-N^2, N-V-PN, and N-V-PA. From statements selected from children's own writing, she asks them to find sentence patterns they themselves use. (See examples in Fifth Grade, under Objective 1.)

Pupils tape and transcribe a conversation of first grade children and one of adults. They select and categorize the sentences illustrative of the four patterns which they know. They will recognize that small children use the basic patterns, but with less variety than adults.

A fifth common sentence pattern is introduced by attention to the word there in sentences such as the following:

There was a chill in the autumn breeze.
There is a hole in my pocket.

There are several pine trees in our yard.
Once upon a time *there* was a beautiful princess.

The function of the word *there* is to fill a place at the beginning of the sentence so that the listener or reader will know that the subject of the sentence comes later on. The word *there* is called an *expletive* when it performs this function. Sometimes *there* is an adverb, naming a place. When the word is stressed (*There is Tom!* Tom is *there*.) the word serves as an adverb. The word functions as an *expletive* when it is an unstressed introducer of a sentence.

Provide opportunities for pupils to analyze sentences of the E-V-N pattern. Illustrations:

$\underbrace{\text{There}}$	$\underbrace{\text{was}}$	$\underbrace{\text{a vicious dog}}$	$\underbrace{\text{in the yard.}}$
Expletive	verb	Subject	Phrase functioning as an adverb, modifying *was*.

$\underbrace{\text{There}}$	$\underbrace{\text{is}}$	$\underbrace{\text{money}}$	$\underbrace{\text{in the bank.}}$
Expletive	verb	Subject noun	Phrase functioning as an adverb, modifying *is*.

3. To understand the term *construction* and to identify constructions within sentences.

Example for all pupils: The term *construction* is introduced and discussed as a derived word, *construct* + *-ion*. The verb *construct* means to put together systematically or to build. The suffix *-ion* added to the verb signifies the result of the action stated by the verb.

Neither part of the sentence would communicate meaning alone. Acting together the two parts make an intelligible statement. This acting together forms a construction called *predication*. The teacher writes on the board a short simple sentence, and discusses its parts. The sentence is extended thereby adding other structures. Each addition is explained, the way the words tie together within the addition and the way the additional construction ties into the original or kernel sentence:

(a) $\underbrace{\text{People}}_{\text{Subject}}$ $\underbrace{\text{eat.}}_{\text{Predicate}}$

In the following extended sentence (b), there is the same structure of predication, but with the addition of the noun foods in the predicate there is added the construction of complementation.

(b) Fat people usually eat fattening foods.

The kernel of the sentence now has the pattern N^1-V-N^2. Sentence (b) has also added the construction of modification with the adjective fat modifying the headword in the subject, the adverb usually modifying the headword in the predicate, and the adjective fattening modifying the noun foods, which is the direct object.

(c) Thin people often eat very little food.

Predication is represented by the subject and predicate; complementation by the direct object food; modification by adjectives and an adverb, and by the intensifier very. Pupils will recognize that sentences (b) and (c) have the same kernel and the pattern N^1-V-N^2.

(d) Most people eat when they are hungry.

With the kernel sentence of (a), this sentence has the construction of predication, but there is no complement, and it takes the pattern N-V. Modification is present in the adjective most and in the clause used as an adverb modifying the verb eat. The clause when they are hungry is subordinate to the main clause in the kernel sentence. Thus the construction of subordination is represented. (See examples in Fifth Grade, under Objective 2.)

(e) Mr. and Mrs. Jones eat all three meals in a cafe.

In this sentence, the construction of *coordination* is shown in two like elements joined by *and* in the subject. *Predication* is shown in subject and predicate, and they are followed by a direct object, *meals*, which represents *complementation*. *Modification* is shown in *all* and *three*, modifying *meals*. *Subordination* is represented by the phrase *in a cafe*, modifying the verb *eat*.

(f) Mr. Jones is not a good cook and Mrs. Jones works in town.

Coordination is shown by two equal clauses joined by *and*. *Predication* is shown in each clause. The first clause has an example of *complementation* in the pattern N-V-PN. The second clause is the pattern N-V, with *subordination* in the phrase *in town* modifying the verb *works*. *Modification* is shown in *good* and *in town*.

Example for all pupils: Pupils find examples of the five constructions in the following sentences. For each sentence they state the pattern.

(1) The patient under the oxygen tent is very ill.

(2) The baseball team will play in the tournament if it wins the game today.

(3) The man who is in the boat is watching us.

(4) The children on the playground are running and shouting.

(5) Joe hit the homerun that won the ball game.

(6) The tall man on the elevator smiled at the little child and his huge dog.

SENTENCE STRUCTURE

Grammar is divided into morphology, dealing with the structure of words, and syntax, dealing with the combinations of words into large units of phrases, clauses, and sentences.

There are five basic syntactic patterns of utterances or language structures, which will help in the study of syntax. There are (1) structures of *modification*, (2) structures of *predication*, (3) structures of *complementation*, (4) structures of *coordination*, and (5) structures of *subordination*. These are the five ways that words may fit together in English. They are the five kinds of relationships, and no matter how complicated a structure may be, it can always be analyzed in terms of these five basic types of syntactic structure.[1]

The structure of modification consists of a head (h) and a modifier (m), whose meaning serves to broaden, qualify, select, change, describe, or in some other way affect the meaning of the head. The head of a structure of modification is frequently a noun and the modifier frequently an adjective, such as

m h
new car

m h
safe roads

In the examples just cited, both the head and the modifier are single words. But this is not always the case. These structures can be of a more complex nature, such as

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[1] The discussion of the first four syntactic structures was based primarily on material contained in Chapter 6 of *The Structure of American English* by W. Nelson Francis. The section on subordination was based on material in Chapter 2 of *The English Language* by W. Nelson Francis.

h	m
children	laughing and playing
h	m
people	who like to read

A structure may include other structures as one or both of its parts. Each of the four parts of speech (noun, verb, adjective, adverb), as well as certain function words, may serve as the head of a structure of modification. Also, each of the four parts of speech, sometimes in special inflected forms, and certain function words serve as modifiers.

In the sentence, "He usually tells me his secrets," *usually tells* is a structure of modification with the verb *tells* as head:

h	m
(he) works	successfully
m	h
(he) slowly	drove

When adjectives function as heads of structures of modification, their most common modifiers are the qualifiers, such as *very*, *rather*, and *quite*. After the qualifiers, the next most frequent modifiers of adjectives are adverbs, but all the parts of speech may occasionally function as modifiers of adjectives. Example 1 shows a qualifier modifying an adjective-head, while Example 2 shows the adverb as modifier.

Example 1	m	h
	very	pretty
Example 2	m	h
	exceedingly	famous

When adverbs appear as heads of structures of modification, they may be modified by several different classes of modifiers:

Qualifiers:	m	h
	rather	slowly

Other Adverbs:	m far	h away
Nouns:	m a foot	h away
Prepositional Phrases:	h outside	m in the cold

The *structures of predication* also consist of two components, a subject and a predicate (verb):

s boys	p play
s dogs	p bark

Each of these may be a single word, as in the above examples, or they may consist of a word with accompanying function word(s), a phrase, or one of the four other kinds of syntactic structure--modification, complementation, coordination, and subordination. Some examples include:

(modification)	s the sun	p sets *in the west* (modification)
(modification)	s the industrious man	p painted *the house* (complementation)
(coordination)	s the boy and girl	p walked *and* talked (coordination)
(modification)	s to work in the city	p is *my ambition* (complementation)
(complementation)	s riding the surf	p is *my favorite hobby* (complementation)

The *structures of complementation* consist of a verbal element and a complement. The verbal element may be a single verb or any structure that has a verb in key position, such as a verb-phrase, an infinitive, a structure of modification with verb as head, or a structure of coordination whose components are any of these. The verbs which are at the core of these various types of verbal elements may be divided into three main groups, two of which have complements:

1. Linking verb has a subjective complement (SC) but no passive form.

	v	sc
(the woman)	is	a nurse
	v	sc
(his hobby)	is	collecting stamps
	v	sc
(the boy)	is	tall

2. Intransitive verb has neither complement nor passive, so it does not appear in structures of complementation.

3. Transitive verb has, in the active voice, a direct object and sometimes an indirect object or an objective complement. In the passive voice it sometimes has a retained object or objective complement.

	v		DO
Direct object:	(he) caught		the fish
DO	v		DO
	(he) wants		to make money
Indirect object:	v	IO	DO
IO	(he) told	the policemen	his name
Objective	v	DO	OC
complement	(he) painted	his house	green
OC	v	DO	OC
	(we) elected	his brother	president
Objective comple-	v		OC
ment after	(he) was made		angry
passive			
OC			

Structures of coordination consist of two or more parallel constructions, usually joined by a special kind of function word(s) such as *and*; *neither*, *nor*; *not only*, *but also*. These syntactically equivalent units may be any of the parts of speech, function words, or more complex structures. Some examples of structures of co-ordination include:

not only Mother but also Daddy
laughing and playing
(he) paints pictures and plays the piano
the tall, awkward boy
red, white, and blue

The structures of subordination consist of a subordinator and subordinated material. One example of a structure of subordination is the phrase of my car. Of serves as the subordinator and my car as the subordinated material. The function of of is to indicate the subordinate relationship of the short phrase my car to the rest of the sentence. The purpose of the structure of subordination is to fit such a structure into a larger construction. The dependent clause is also a structure of subordination. In the sentence "We heard the news that the war is over," the clause "that the war is over" is a structure of subordination with that serving as subordinator and the war is over serving as the subordinated material.

The order in which words appear is also important in an English sentence.

(1) Grouping of words: There are words in English which will group with some kinds of words but not with others. For example, it is possible to utter strings of words such as these:

Bakes lady old good the cakes.
The old lady bakes good cakes.

The first utterance is made up of intelligible words but is meaningless. The second utterance, made up of the same words, is a meaningful English sentence. The difference is in the arrangement of the words. The words the, old, and lady group together; the words the, old, and bakes do not group together.

There is an established order of words within a group. Established order in English is the old lady, not old the lady, nor lady the old.

(2) Order of the groups within a sentence: The subject precedes the predicate; the subject and predicate relate to each other; the direct object fulfills or complements the assertion made by the verb, and thus follows the verb. The order of groups of words falls into several common patterns, designated sentence patterns.

A study of the base sentence patterns brings to the conscious level the forms that are already being used successfully at the operational level.

PATTERN ONE

The form of Pattern One is Subject followed by Verb, represented by S + V or N + V. With this sentence pattern of Noun + Verb, we can form a sentence like

N + V

Mary + sings.

The first position in the sentence is usually the subject which is always a substantive (any word or group of words which function as a name). The best way to locate the subject of a sentence is to ask "Who?" or "What?" before the word or the phrase that expresses action or assertion. If the subject were located in different parts of the sentence to vary style or meaning in English speech and writing, the sentence would no longer follow the basic Pattern One.

Pattern One can be expanded in many ways. Most frequently an adverb is used to provide variations. Mary + sings+beautifully. To represent Pattern One plus an adverb, we use the symbols N + V + (Adv.). The parentheses indicate that the element may be left out, as with the adverb in the sentence above. Other forms of *Mary* + *sings* might include the following:

(1) An expanded subject

(Participial phrase) Mary, *standing in the center of the auditorium stage and performing for the empty seats*, + sings as if this were tonight's performance.

(2) An expanded verb

(prepositional phrase) Mary + has been singing *in the church choir*.

(subordinate clause) Aunt Mary + is singing *so that the house will have a happy sound*.

If a noun that requires an article or some other noun determiner is used for the subject of a Pattern One sentence, the grammatical representation becomes (D) + N + V + (Adv.). Substituting words for this representation we have

(D) N + V + (Adv.)
The + dog + barks + loudly.

Still further examples of Pattern One are forms of the verb *be* that are followed by an adverb.[2]

The mail *is* here.

Billie *was* up.

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[2] According to Nelson Francis such sentences would be Pattern Three. He would consider its constituents to be S + V + SC: a subject, a verb and a subjective complement.

(D) + S + V + SC
The + mail + is + here

His mother was nearby.

They're off.

Others place these sentences with forms of be in an entirely different sentence pattern[3]; however, in this writing such sentences will be treated as another variant of Pattern One.

EXTENDING SENTENCES

Sentences are expanded by adding modifiers, dependent clauses, and/or duplicating structures within the pattern. Roberts calls this method of extending sentences using slots.[4] The individual actually learns the syntactic structures of modification, predication, complementation, coordination, and subordination and then forms sentences from any combination of words that will logically fit into the sentence frame or pattern. Using these five syntactic structures, one can represent an infinite number of ideas and relationships through a finite number of sentence patterns. The slot in this Pattern One sentence

__________ sings.

can be filled by almost any substantive with the number of modifiers almost unlimited.

(D) + N + V + (Adv.)
The dog barks loudly.

(D) + N + V + (Adv.)
The ( ) dog ( ) barks loudly.
brown and white that lives next door
The brown and white dog that lives next door barks loudly.

In the sentence above brown and white are united in a structure of coordination, brown and white, and become a structure of modification as they modify dogs. Next we see a structure of subordination, that lives next door, being used as a modifier of the noun dog. The syntactic structure of predication occurs in the clause that lives next door and also in the kernel sentence The brown and white dog (that lives next door) barks.

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[3] Paul Roberts. English Sentences. New York: Harcourt, Brace, and World, Inc., 1962, p. 45.

[4] Ibid., p. 11.

PATTERN TWO

A second sentence pattern--perhaps the most common one of all--consists of a noun, a verb, and another noun used as the object of the verb.

1. Pattern Two is represented as N + V + N, or S + V + N.

N + V + N

Joe eats pie

Verbs that have an adverb constantly occurring with them to extend their meaning, as looked in, and came to, are considered a form or a Pattern One verb.

The nurse looked in on Tommy.

Having lain on the floor an hour, the injured man came to.

Nelson Francis calls verbs of this type separable verbs.[5] The term separable is perhaps best seen in a Pattern Two sentence that shows an object.

Pattern 2 The old woman took in laundry.

The old woman took laundry in.

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[5] Nelson Francis. The Structure of American English. New York: The Ronald Press, 1958, p. 265-267.

2. Pattern Two may be extended, N + V + N + N, to include an indirect object. Often the verb is a form of *give* when indirect objects are found in sentences.

(D) + N + V + (D) + N + (D) + N
The man gave the boy some money.

3. The same grammatical representation as an indirect object, N + V + N + N, is used when a sentence contains an objective complement.

(D) + N + V + (D) + N + (D) + N
The principal called that boy a genius.
The class elected Arthur president.
He considered me a fool.

In these sentences the nouns that follow the verb refer to the same thing, i.e., *boy* - *genius*, *Tom* - *president*, *me* - *fool*. In the case of a sentence with an indirect object, the nouns that follow the verb refer to different things.

4. Sometimes occurring in a sentence after an object is an adjective, as an objective complement. This is just another example of the variety which may occur under Pattern Two.

He considered me foolish.
I thought Tom honest.

Sentences of this type are symbolically represented, N + V + N + Adj.

(D) + N + V + (D) + N + Adj.
The man thought his son smart.

The components of Pattern Two may be extended to obtain variations. Grammatical analysis shows that most of our sentences are extensions and variations of Pattern One and Two.

N + V + N
I + want + a drink of water
Tom + studied + chemistry for his degree in science
The man in the store+ brought + a package to exchange.

PATTERN THREE

In Pattern Three, N + V + PN, the noun that follows the verb renames the subject. The verb of Pattern Three is one of the forms of *be* or a linking verb. This pattern establishes a unique relationship between the two substantives. In the sentences below, *clown* and *fool* are the same individual, *Mary* is the same person as the speaker's *sister*, and *puppy* and *pet* refer to the same animal.

(D) + N + V + (D) + PN
The clown seemed a fool.
Mary is my sister.
The puppy was a pet.

PATTERN FOUR

Pattern Four is similar to Pattern Three in that it too uses forms of *be* or of linking verbs. The adjective which follows the verb modifies the subject of the sentence.

(D) + N + V + PA
The lions appeared tame.
That rose is red.
Jill is pretty.

The kernel or basic sentences show all of the grammatical relationships of the language. The more complex sentences are derived from transformations of the kernel sentences.

By the time a child enters school, he is well aware of the basic sentence structures and, even further, has learned to alter these patterns to express the meaning he desires. A child knows where to place each word in a sentence like "Jill plays with me." In other words, he can use the kernel sentences of the language. He can also change the same sentence to "Can Jill play with me?" because he knows the transformation to use in asking a question, and he easily fits words into the pattern which he needs to communicate his ideas. The development of his ability to use the common transformations easily and completely and to the more unusual ones when needed is basic to his growth in maturity in writing and in speaking.

Transformations that are used frequently and can profitably be explored with young children are:

(1) Questions

(2) Passives

(3) Possessions

(4) Subordinate clauses

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USAGE AND DIALECT

Fourth Grade

EXPECTED READINESS

The child

... understands that usage varies phonologically and morphologically.

... understands that usage varies as vocabulary varies.

... chooses his own usage in terms of his audience and situation.

OBJECTIVES

The child will

... understand that different levels of usage are appropriate in various kinds of situations.

... recognize variations in formal written styles as found in science and in literature.

... work toward developing a command of standard English.

... understand that items in his vocabulary come from many sources.

... understand that pronunciations of some words vary from one area to another.

... become familiar with methods which writers use to show dialect.

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

1. To understand that different levels of usage are appropriate in various kinds of situations.

Example: At the beginning of the school year elect class officers, e.g. president, parliamentarian, secretary-treasurer, etc. About once a month, arrange for the class to conduct meetings to discuss class business such as plans for future field trips, plans for programs to be presented to other classes, decisions upon special topics for study, and development of standards for class behavior. Discuss with the children the fact that business meetings require the use of formal language and adherence to rules for orderly discussion.

Example: Elect a class host and hostess (who can be changed frequently) and, drawing upon home experience, discuss the duties of a host or hostess. Their duties for the class might include answering a knock at the door, and taking care of the business, or notifying the teacher that she is needed; presiding while the teacher is absent from the room; writing class dictated invitations or thank-you notes as they are needed. Discuss the sorts of courteous language which could be used by hosts or hostesses in the various situations which might occur while they are on duty.

Example: Suggest to the class the use of the tape recorder to record their language during various informal activities during the day, such as at the time they are putting up a bulletin board display or playing a game. Suggest that the recordings be used to play the conversation back to the class so that they may hear the kinds of language they use in informal situations. (The teacher should review the tape before playing it for the class so that she can erase any remarks that might prove embarassing to the children). Ask the children what differences they hear in their language: Are their voice tones more excited during the game than in classwork? Do they use words, such as ain't, that they would not use when talking to the teacher? This is an appropriate place to point out to the children that because these are informal situations their informal speech is quite acceptable.

Example: Discuss the use of Mr. and Mrs. by children. Discuss with the children when and why these terms of respect are used. Such ideas as the age of the child and adult, closeness of relationship between child and adult, and area of the country in which these terms are used should be brought out.

2. To recognize variations in formal written styles in poetry and in prose.

Example: Read a poem such as "The Old Wife and the Ghost" by James Reeves to the children. Ask them to draw the old lady and the ghost as they envision them; compare the pictures and discuss the different ways in which the characters are depicted. Point out that the language of poetry and much other fictional writing leaves room for the individual's imagination. Then ask the children if they noticed any unusual words or phrases in the poem; e.g. "pottering around", "larder shelf", "tidy big cat". Is the rhythm of poetry like that of other kinds of writing? Is it different because it is more distinct and obvious? In what form is the poem written (verses and stanzas as compared with paragraphs)?

Read a selection from scientific writing, such as What's Inside of Plants? and What's Inside of Me? by Herbert Zim. Contrast the selection of poetry with the descriptive vocabulary used in this selection. Does the scientific material appeal to the imagination of the reader? What is the form? (Paragraphs, rather than verses or stanzas). What kinds of words are used? Are new words usually defined carefully in science books? Is the vocabulary concise? Is there figurative language or rhyme? Ask the children to rewrite the paragraph as a short poem. Was this easy to do? Why or why not? Why did the author choose this style of writing?

Example: Select a particular paragraph from the pupils' science textbook. Examine it to determine the methods used by the writer to make the content clear and understandable. What qualities of this style of writing make it easy to understand? Would this be a good way for students to write science reports?

3. To develop a command of standard English.

Example: Have the children bring in newspaper or magazine clippings which illustrate a particular standard usage form that is being studied by the class; (e.g.) did, done; went, gone, etc. This activity may be correlated with usage study throughout the year. The children keep a usage notebook composed of these clippings.

Example: After several standard forms have been studied, ask the children to write stories in which they leave blanks wherever those particular forms would be used. They can then exchange stories and fill in the blanks or read the stories to the class so that the class can supply the desired form.

4. To understand that one's own vocabulary is made up of words from many sources.

Example: As pupils learn to interpret etymologies in their study of the dictionary, ask them to trace the history of names of food: potato, chile, hamburger, chocolate, coffee, tea, milk, squash, mousse, strudel, chop suey, pizza, corn, spaghetti, etc.

Using a word map, attach a piece of colored yarn from the originating country to the U.S. In some instances, the yarn will go from the originating country to another country before it comes to the U.S. For example, Chili (short for chili con carne, 'peppers with meat or flesh') came from Spain. The Spanish adopted the word from Nahautl Indians of the land that is now Mexico. Attach small word cards to the strings showing the name words in various forms.

Example: Have pupils draw or cut out pictures of musical instruments. With each picture write the name word and origin of the word: oboe, clarinet, piano, ukelele, banjo, harp, violin, etc.

Example: Using pictures of items used in recreations, ask pupils to name the object and find the origins of these name words: skis, tennis racquet, marbles, jackstones, etc.

5. To understand that pronunciations of some words vary in different geographical areas.

Example: As pupils learn to use pronunciation guides in dictionaries ask them to find words such as the following: aunt, tomato, automobile, pecan, peanut, can't, etc. Write the conventional spelling of the word, then the phonetic spellings using the phonetic symbolization pupils use in their reading classes or one which they are investigating in the dictionary study. Underline the phonetic spelling that represents the typical pronunciation in the local dialect.

6. To become familiar with methods which writers use to show dialect.

Example: Read a selection of dialect literature to the children. Copy one or two passages on the board in order to discuss with children the writer's clues to his characters' pronunciations. Examples from Lois Lenski's Cotton in My Sack are good illustrations.

References

Lenski, Lois. Cotton in My Sack. Philadelphia: J. P. Lippincott, 1949.

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Zim, Herbert. What's Inside of Me?, illustrated by Herschel Wartik. New York: Morrow and Company, 1952.

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USAGE AND DIALECT

Fifth Grade

EXPECTED READINESS

The child

... understands that different levels of usage are appropriate in various kinds of situations.

... understands that there are various levels and styles of formal writing.

... works toward developing a command of standard English.

OBJECTIVES

The child

... evaluates the language of others in terms of its appropriateness.

... analyzes language in terms of its variations.

... attempts to apply the principle of appropriateness to his own usage.

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

1. To evaluate the language of others in terms of its appropriateness.

Example: The class may decide together upon a set of guiding questions to use in observing and evaluating the use of language. The class may then make a chart listing those questions:

(1) Who are the speakers?

(2) To whom are they speaking?

(3) What is the situation?

(4) What are they talking about?

The class then divides into work groups to plan what sources of language they wish to observe and evaluate. Suggested areas for observation are commercials on television or radio, westerns, situation-comedy, adventure, and suspense programs on T.V., magazine articles, newspaper articles, story books, the language used by different adults in specific situations (for example, the minister's sermon on Sunday morning, two neighbors talking). After the groups have made their observations and evaluations, they present their findings to the class.

Example: The children write a story or play in which they concentrate upon making the language of the characters consistent with the character and appropriateness to the situation in which the character is involved.

2. To analyze language in terms of its variations.

Example: Make a tape recording of different children reading sentences containing words such as, garage, greasy, tomato, button, sentence, often, either, etc. Instruct the children to read the sentences as they ordinarily would say them. Play the tape back and discuss the differences in pronunciation of the key words. For example, do some people say the final syllable in tomato with the vowel sound in go and others with the sound of er in flower.

Example: Discuss passages from Mark Twain's The Adventures of Tom Sawyer in which dialect is used. Why did Twain sometimes use the word don't when doesn't is the accepted form? Is it appropriate for the character he has drawn? What are some situations in which it might be better to use doesn't?

Example: The children play with variations within a particular sentence pattern. Show them the following pairs of sentences, all of which are written in the pattern N-V-N.

(1) Sally saw the dog.
The child observed the spaniel.

(2) John clumb a tree.
John climbed a tree.

(3) The dog chased the cat.
The big, hairy sheepdog chased the thin, scraggly alleycat.

Elicit from the children the ways in which the second sentence in each pair differs from the first, i.e., in (1) the vocabulary is different, in (2) the verbs are from different levels of usage, and in (3) descriptive phrases have been added and some descriptive words substituted. After these sentences have been discussed, put a sentence with the same pattern (N-V-N), such as "The boy ate a piece of bread", and ask the children to write variations of the sentence.

3. To apply the principle of appropriateness to one's own usage.

Example: Plan a report of observations made in a science experiment. What kind of language is appropriate for a science report? How does the language of a science report differ from that of stories? If the report is to be presented to a lower grade, how would the language be affected?

Example: To further develop the ability to use different styles and levels of usage, help the children plan brief conversations to be dramatized in which different situations and characters are designated. Such situations as the following may be used:

(a) A child explaining to his teacher why he doesn't have his homework.

(b) Two boys arguing whether one of them was "safe" or "out" in a baseball game.

(c) A child inviting the principal to visit his room.

(d) A child explaining to his father why he walked in the mud puddle with his Sunday shoes on.

(e) A child explaining to his parents why he needs a raise in his allowance.

References

Clemens, Samuel L. *The Adventures of Tom Sawyer*, illustrated by Donald McKay. New York: Grosset and Dunlap, 1946. p.16.

Sandburg, Carl. *Abe Lincoln Grows Up*, illustrated by James Dougherty. New York: Narcourt, Brace and Company, 1928.

DIALECT

NOTE: This material is planned to provide for concentration on a study of dialects in addition to a general emphasis on usage and dialect.

Fifth Grade

EXPECTED READINESS

The child

... is aware of variations in dialect.

... has changed many non-standard pronunciations and usages in his own speech to standard forms.

... has attained some ability in adapting his language (his dialect) to varied audiences and situations.

... knows that items in his vocabulary come from many sources.

OBJECTIVES

The child

... understands the terms dialect, dialect geography, and idiolect.

... understands the factors affecting the development of regional dialects.

... becomes familiar with the speech of the main dialect areas of the United States.

... understands the use of dialect in literature.

... recognizes different social dialects within a particular geographic dialect.

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

1. To understand the terms dialect, dialect geography, and idiolect.

Example: Read a story in which dialect is used. Call attention to differences in pronunciation; the techniques used by the writer to acquaint the reader with word pronunciations in the locality represented in the story (variations in spelling, such as "gittin" for "getting"); differences in vocabulary--the odd sounding phrases such as "it is over yonder"; differences in grammar, such as "Mama she did not like it."

Follow this with a brief description and definition of the term dialect. Make available other reading materials in which dialects are identifiable.

Example: Discuss the different ways people talk. Listen to two conversations taped from television. Decide which came from a Western Cowboy program and which came from an Eastern Hillbilly program. Discuss differences heard in speech from the two depicted areas. Locate on map of the United States the approximate dialect areas depicted. It may be necessary to play tapes more than once in order to identify differences and to lead the pupils to check on the identifications they made.

Example: Listen to another tape. Decide whether this speaker belongs to either of the groups represented by the television programs heard earlier. Play a tape made from one of President Kennedy's speeches. Discuss speech differences heard. Locate on the map the dialect area represented by this speaking voice.

Example: Play a tape of local standard dialect, preferably one made previously in the classroom. Discuss speech differences heard. Locate on the map the dialect area represented by this speaking voice. Follow these activities with a discussion of the term dialect geography .

Example: Note the differences in the speech of members of the class, such as the difference in two children's pronunciations of the word aunt or one child's use of a unique expletive ("My stars and garters"). The word used to apply to one person's speech habits is idiolect.

2. To understand the factors affecting the development of regional dialects.

Example: The teacher gives an overview of the reasons for dialects and the kinds of dialect differences in the United States. (See Information for the Teacher.) A world map and a map of the U.S. are used to point out movements and settlements of peoples. A relief map of the U.S. is most desirable since natural geographic barriers would be easily seen.

Example: Listen to recordings of various dialects within the United States. Locate on the map the areas which are represented. Read historical accounts of the migration and settlement of people within our country. Read literature in which area dialect is portrayed.

3. To become familiar with the speech of the main dialect areas of the United States.

Example: Exchange tape-recorded letters with fifth grade pupils in other regions of the country.

Example: Play a game "Who is it?" Pupils choose a geographic dialect area, play part of a taped letter, and tell something about the area in which the speaker lives. Others guess the dialect area portrayed.

Example: Pupils make charts of quotations such as this one from

Huck Finn: "I ain't never seen nothing like that."
(Mark Twain, Mississippi River Area dialect)

4. To understand the use of dialect in literature.

__Example__: Lead pupils to notice that within literature standard English is used by the writer except as he wishes to get special effects (dialect in conversation, etc.). Lead pupils to generalize about this and to notice that they make this difference in their own writing.

__Example__: Pupils write questions about reasons for dialects in the United States and kinds of dialects found here. Questions are put into box, drawn out, and answered.

5. To recognize different social dialects within a particular geographic dialect.

__Example__: The teacher gives an overview of the reasons for dialects and the kinds of dialect differences within a city or county in the United States. (See Information for the Teacher.)

__Example__: One group gathers samples of dialects by taping from radio or television at least three types of speakers: a network news announcer, a local news announcer, and speakers performing roles in a play. Samples should be confined to two minutes of speech.

__Example__: Invite three people who hold important and respected positions in the local area, (a minister, the mayor, a doctor, etc.) to the class to talk about what they do. Pre-determined questions are asked of these people. Pupils and teacher have devised questions together in order to get particular responses. Interviews are taped. Similarities and differences are noted.

__Example__: Show pictures of common objects to adults to find variety of names.

What do you call the thing these children are playing on? (seesaw).

Have you ever called it by another name? Why did you change? What are these? (Peanuts). Have you ever called these by another name? Why did you change? Tell us something about the things you did when you were our age. Did you play ball? Did you ________________? (Lead the person to talk for several minutes in order to get samples of pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar.)

Example: Invite three adults who hold white color positions (a bank clerk, a postal clerk, a policeman, etc.) to visit the class to talk about what they do. The same set of questions is used in these interviews. Interviews are taped.

Example: Invite three adults whose work is manual labor (the garbage collector, a brick mason, a construction worker, etc.) to visit the class. The same set of questions is used again. The interview is taped.

Example: Tapes are played and analyzed in class to detect speech differences among the four groups observed. Pupils themselves make notes about the differences heard and consolidate these into categorical charts such as Pronunciation Differences Heard, Vocabulary Differences Heard, and Grammar Differences Heard. Avoid using Names of people. Refer to them as Speech Sample Number 1, etc. Emphasize the usefulness of the language of each sample and its value as a means of communication.

Example: Write short plays in which a minister, a postal clerk, a radio news announcer, and a brick mason are together. (These people may be traveling together on a plane. They may be the only survivors from a ship wreck. They may be seated in the waiting room of a doctor's office.) Encourage the pupils to construct situations and supply events and conversation. Perform the play.

Example: Write a newspaper notice as it might be written by each of these people. (A doctor announces that he is moving to a new office. How would he write the notice?, Etc.)

Example: Lead a discussion designed to elicit from the pupils their own conclusions about reasons for differences in speech and writing among those samples studied. Help students evaluate their methods of gathering samples of dialects, of studying the samples, and of categorizing the findings.

Example: Through discussion, lead the students to respect any dialect, but at the same time to recognize that people who have been able to become educated leaders in the community are speakers of the standard dialect. Lead the pupils to examine their own habits of pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar in terms of the standard dialect within their geographic area and to determine the times when they can and should vary their dialects according to situations.

USAGE AND DIALECT

Sixth Grade

EXPECTED READINESS

The child

... is able to judge, to some extent, the appropriateness of usage in terms of audience and situation.

... has begun to adapt his own langauge to audiences and situations.

OBJECTIVES

The child will

... analyze usage in terms of phonology, morphology, vocabulary, syntax, and sentence patterns.

... use language flexibly in terms of purpose, situation, and audience.

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

1. To analyze speech or writing in terms of phonology, morphology, vocabulary, syntax, and sentence patterns.

Example: Ask children to read a selection from Ellis Credle, A Tall Tale from the High Hills, written in dialect common to North Carolina Mountain area. Lead pupils to identify vocabulary that varies from their classroom standard and tell another way of saying the same thing.

Example: Guide pupils to identify the varying pronunciations of words as portrayed by the writer. As each is identified ask a pupil to pronounce the word according to the standard dialect of community. Samples: "'em" (them); "shootin'" (shooting); "skeery" (scary);

"a-living" (living).

The teacher asks questions of this nature: The writer shows his readers that the character in the story sometimes omits a segment of sound within a word. What word or words are examples? ('em and shootin'). The character sometimes adds a segment of sound to a word. Who sees an example of that? (a-living) The character, also, sometimes alters or changes a segment of sound. Do you see an example of that? (skeery)

Example: To guide pupils in identifying morphological variations, the teacher asks pupils to look at the words which are different.

When pupils understand that words may be structured or built up differently by adding varied affixes, introduce the terms morphology and morpheme. (See Morphology for development of understanding). Use the dictionary to find the meanings and origins of these words. Encourage the pupils to use these terms in class discussion.

Example: Guide pupils to identify syntactical variations. Review the fact that not only do people vary in their choices of words, but they vary the ways they group words together within a phrase or a sentence. Explain that grouping of words is called syntax and that syntactical variations are different groupings of words. (See Sentence Structure for development of understanding). Encourage pupils to use the terms syntax and syntactical in their class discussions. Find some syntactic arrangements that seem unusual in these examples: "Off I set for home" (I set off for home); "It came to me, of a sudden, that ..." (It suddenly came to me that ...); "...had 'em cut me off a hunk." (...had "em cut off a hunk for me.)

Example: In summarizing, write on the board:

Variations in language usage

(1) vocabulary variation--(variation in choice of words.)

(2) phonological variation--(variation in pronunciations)

(3) morphological variation--(variation in forming or structuring words.)

(4) syntactical variation--(variation in the way words are grouped.)

Alert pupils to the fact that within one dialect there are variations in language usage. Ask pupils to read two stories, "Little Toot" by Hardis Gramatky and a selection from Rachel Carson's The Sea Around Us. Explain to them that "Little Toot" is written for very young children and The Sea Around Us is written for adults.

Compare the first five sentences in one with the first five sentences in the other by using a form such as the following:

	Gramatky	Carson
Sentence patterns:	____________________	____________________
	____________________	____________________
	____________________	____________________
	____________________	____________________
	____________________	____________________
Examples of Modification:	____________________	____________________
	____________________	____________________
	____________________	____________________
Examples of Coordination:	____________________	____________________
	____________________	____________________
	____________________	____________________
	____________________	____________________

Examples of Subordination:

____________________ ____________________

____________________ ____________________

____________________ ____________________

____________________ ____________________

Examples of Complementation:

____________________ ____________________

____________________ ____________________

____________________ ____________________

____________________ ____________________

Example: Record on tape the voices of pupils as they talk in a sharing period (current events, reports, etc.) or an informal discussion period. Listen to the recording, one sentence at a time, and transcribe. Identify the sentence patterns used. What kinds of modifiers are used? Are ideas within a sentence coordinated? Are ideas within a sentence subordinated? How much variety can be found in these sentences?

2. To use language flexibly in terms of purpose, situation, and audience.

Example: Present a situation which lends itself to communication with varied audiences. The bristles of a new paint brush come out while you are painting. Write to a friend to tell him the predicament you were in when this happened. Write to the company from which the brush was bought to ask for a refund or a replacement.

Example: Explain a science demonstration to a first grade child, to the school librarian, to a high school science teacher. Tape the explanations in order to transcribe and analyze and compare them.

__Example__: Send a child to the office to make two telephone calls, one to his mother to ask permission to represent his class interviewing the mayor about city parks, the other to the mayor's office stating his business and asking for an appointment. Ask the child if you may tape his two conversations. Later the tape is played for the purpose of comparing the differing speech situations of one person.

__Example__: Write and produce five-minute plays using the following situations:

(1) A doctor, a minister, and a high school football player talk together while they wait in a dentist's office.

(2) A three-year-old talks with Santa Claus.

(3) A very old lady talks with a taxi driver as he drives her to the airport.

(4) A fifth grade boy talks with a lady about a lawn-mowing job.

(5) Two prison inmates talk together from one cell to the other.

(6) Two astronauts talk together as they circle the earth.

__Example__: Play the role of a current sports hero or a young television actress. Answer three letters you receive in the mail. Here are the letters you received:

> Hi,
>
> I saw you play Friday night and were you terrific! You were the whole show! I wanted very much to be there cheering with all the others. I was in front of the T. V. set cheering like mad.
>
> Someday I hope to meet you, because I think you are the greatest.
>
> An admirer,
>
> Snookie Smith
> Jonesville, Ark.

SMILE TOOTHPASTE, INC.
785 W. 49th St.
Chicago, Ill.

July 19, 1967

Mr. (Fill in name of hero or actress popular with your group)
Bayshore Hotel
Miami Beach, Florida

Dear Mr. (Miss) ___________:

Congratulations upon your many fine performances! Your playing has won for you the hearts of all Americans.

Our company has watched your career with interest. Few people have reached such heights and still retained such a modest smile. We would like to offer you an opportunity to make that smile a trademark.

We are shipping to you today as a gift a gross of our giant-size SMILE. After you have had the opportunity to enjoy our product we would like your permission to have our representative call and talk with you about sponsoring SMILE.

Very truly yours,

John A. Jones
President

My Dear ________________,

I enjoyed watching you on television Friday. I suppose you played well--the crowd seemed to think so.

I must confess that I noticed little of your playing. I kept thinking how much you are like your grandfather. I'm sorry you never knew him. I am mailing you a picture of him. Your eyes and mouth in that close-up were very much like his in this picture.

Your mother writes that all of you will be here for Christmas as usual. As you know, that pleases me.

Until then

Love,

Grandmother

P. S. Did you know that your cousin John is back from Viet Nam and will be with us Christmas!

References

Carson, Rachel L. "The Moving Tides," from _The Sea Around Us_. Included in Edna Johnson, Evelyn R. Sickels, and Francis C. Sayers, _Anthology of Children's Literature_, Revised Edition. Boston: Houghton-Miflin, 1959. pp. 753-755.

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USAGE

Speech is recognized as the most important means of communication known to man; communication through speech, moreover, is a conveyance not only of ideas but also of self. It is the importance of speech in conveying impressions and establishing relationships between people that has brought about the English teacher's concern with the area of taste in language, or usage, as well as with the structure of the language, or grammar. It cannot be denied that this is an important part of the child's language education; however, it is necessary for both student and teacher to remember (1) that usage is not grammar and should not be allowed to over-shadow an examination of the system that makes grammar communicate even when individual or textbook taste is violated (2) that usage involves choice, or taste, and (3) that audience and situation should be considered when choices are made. It is as inappropriate for a football coach to shout to his team, "Impede them! Impede them! Throw obstacles in their way!" as it is for a minister to say "Hit ain't" to a well-educated congregation. With this in mind, it may be well to re-examine the area of language usage.

Usage may be defined as the sum of all choices offered within the language system. Although grammar are separate segments of language study, the traditional grammarian does not always make this distinction clear. For example, the traditional grammarian has treated ain't as "incorrect" or "bad English." However, because ain't fits the grammatical system of the language, a better explanation might be: "Ain't is a form not accepted by polite society." The judgment concerning ain't is not one of grammatical correctness or incorrectness, but one of taste. Since usage is usually treated in the classroom in the manner of the traditional grammarian, it is wise to remember that his judgments are based upon the language of the standard-setting group of speakers. The particular choices which are offered by usage handbooks are but a segment of the available alternatives in the language.

Since every speaker makes choices in every utterance, the first step in studying usage is examination of the kinds of choices involved in an utterance. The language offers a speaker alternatives at every level of the hierarchy of the language system: phonology, morphology, syntax, and sentence patterns. In addition, the speaker may draw from the entire word-stock of the language and from the various meanings attached to each word.

To indicate the kinds of choices involved in an utterance, this sentence and some possible variations of it are offered as examples.

> You girls should leave those pocketbooks with me
> while you are swimming.

(a) The final sound in swimming may be [n], as in "win", or [ŋ], as in "wing." A speaker who habitually uses [n], or the final sound of win, will read the word swimming with that sound. This choice between [n] and [ŋ] is one of many possible choices in pronunciation (phonology) which a speaker may make in this sentence.

(b) Different speakers may substitute *you*, *you all*, *y'all*, *you folks*, or *youse* for *you girls*. This a choice of morphology.

(c) Different speakers may say *them*, *those*, *dem*, or *dose* before *pocketbooks*. This is also a matter of morphological variation.

(d) The phrase *should leave* may be replaced by *ought to leave*, *had ought to leave*, *had better leave*, etc., thus changing the syntactic pattern somewhat.

(e) The sentence pattern may be varied slightly by making a command: "Leave those pocketbooks with me while you are swimming."

(f) Some speakers may prefer *bathing* to *swimming*. This is a choice of vocabulary or word-stock.

(g) Various words, such as *purses*, *handbags*, *bags*, may be substituted for *pocketbooks*. This is a choice of vocabulary, or lexical item.

In addition to the kinds of choices illustrated above, the speaker-listener relationship involves semantic interpretation of the words used. Thus the word *pocketbook* could involve not only the various alternatives suggested in (g), but also words which indicate that *pocketbook* has been interpreted as paperback book. The process involved in choice of meaning, or choosing from a word's semantic field, is dependent upon the experience of both speaker and listener and the context in which the word is used. A listener who is able to see the articles in question automatically knows what *pocketbooks* means, but one who cannot see the pocketbooks will make the semantic interpretation which his experience suggests.

The variations of the sample sentence offered above are recognizable as differences in the speech of people belonging to different social classes and different regions of the country. For, although the language offers multitudinous alternatives to its speakers, these alternatives tend to be grouped into usage sets which correspond to geographic divisions of an area and to social class stratification. These sets of usages, known as geographic and social dialects, appear in every language. Each kind of dialect has characteristic items drawn from every level of the language-system hierarchy, as well as a characteristic word-stock and some unique semantic concepts.

Geographic dialect, or the composite of usages which are regional in nature, is the first kind of dialect which determines a speaker's natural usage. The most obvious of the speech differences associated with geographic dialect are those of pronunciation. They fall into three categories: allophonic variations, differences of phonemic inventory, and differences in phonemic distribution.[1]

The New Englander's use of [s], as in *kiss*, and the word *greasy*, compared with the Southerner's use of [z], as in *zero*, in the same word, illustrated an allophonic difference between two dialects. Another allophonic variation is evident when the New Yorker's pronunciation of *tree* and *three* is compared with the Southerner's. The former uses a dental stop (made with teeth and tongue) in *three* to contrast with the alveolar /t/ (made with tongue and hard gum ridge) in *tree*; the latter uses [θ] (which is the initial sound in *thanks*) in *three* to contrast with the alveolar /t/ in tree.[2]

The absence of [θ] and [ð], the initial sounds in *thanks* and *those* respectively, in the speech of uneducated Jamaicans and the absence of [x] (the palatal sound present in Old English *ich* and German *Bach*) from American English illustrate dialectal differences in phonemic inventory, or in total number of phonemes.

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[1] W. Nelson Francis, *The English Language: An Introduction*, New York: W. W. Norton and Co., Inc., 1965, pp. 227-228.

[2] *Ibid*., p. 227.

Finally, variations in the distribution of phonemes in different dialects, or the use of different phonemes in the same word, appear in such pairs as:

tomato: /təmá: to:/, and /təme: to:/
house: /həws/ and /hæws/

Differences in morphology, syntax, and patterns, although frequently not as obvious as pronunciation differences, do play a part in regional dialects. For example, morphological contrasts occur in the second person plural pronoun: *you* or *you people*, for educated Northerners, *youse*, for some uneducated Northerners; *you all*, *y'all*, and *you folks*, for most Southerners. Typical syntactic variations are "hadn't ought" in Northern speech, "finally at last" in North Carolina speech, or "he don't " in some parts of the South. Variations in sentence patterns may be illustrated by such samples as the Southerner's "I just love going shopping" in contrast with the Northerner's omission of *just*, or the Northerner's frequent addition of "You know" to an utterance. One variation of sentence pattern is in this sentence heard in Georgia: "Did I ever have a good time!"

Differences in lexical items between dialects provide the student of dialect with helpful information for establishing dialect boundaries. For example, in different areas of the country the same cooking utensil may be called a *skillet*, a *frying pan*, a *spider*, a *creeper*, or a *fry pan*. These are regional words which are expressions of the particular cultural phenomena of an area. Hence, the Southern honorific "Colonel";

the Western "tall talk" words, such as rambunctious, cahoots, and hornswoggle; and the Louisiana Creole words are an integral part of dialect.[3]

Just as language is divided into geographic dialects, it is also divided into social dialects. Thus a professor, a salesman, and a mill hand in the same town will have differences in their speech other than those of regional dialect. These are differences in speech which correspond to the social hierarchy of an area. Those features associated with lower class speakers are considered vulgar by speakers higher on the social ladder, while speakers of the lower class may consider the speech of upper class speakers prissy or snobbish. Charles Barber, in his book Linguistic Change in Present Day English, says, "If by some historical accident the vowel sounds of the Cockney and the Eton boy had been distributed the other way round, we should still have found the speech of the Cockney 'vulgar' and the speech of the Eton boy 'posh'."[4]

In American speech, there are three social dialects, or social levels of usage: vulgate, or folk speech; popular, or colloquial speech; and formal speech. At the bottom of the social dialect hierarchy is folk speech, or vulgate English, which is the natural usage of those people who are not heavily dependent upon language for a livelihood. Some solecisms, such as the double negative, are common to such speakers throughout the country. Nevertheless, because most of the characteristic features of folk speech are regional, it is considered the most insular of the social dialects. An example of folk speech is this statement:

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[3] For more complete discussion, see Thomas Pyles, Words and Ways of American English, New York: Random House, Inc., 1952.

[4] Charles Barber, Linguistic Change in Present Day English, University, Alabama: University of Alabama Press, 1964, p. 17.

"You ought'a could use better English. You're as good as any next feller." Often heard are "He don't" and "I've drank," and "between you and I."

The natural language of the middle group of the population is colloquial[5] speech; this is also the language of informal or intimate conversation among educated speakers. Control of technical vocabulary is a characteristic of speakers of this level. However, colloquial speakers are frequently unsure or indifferent in such matters as choosing pronoun case or making the distinctions between like and as. Ain't appears in colloquial speech, and contractions such as hadn't, should've, etc., have a high occurence. "Who did you give it to?" and "I don't know whom they think is going" are examples of colloquial speech.

At the top of the social dialect hierarchy is formal speech, or the "King's English," which is the language used by cultured, educated speakers when they are being self-conscious about their speech. Formal English is characterized by precision in its grammar and vocabulary. The finer distinctions of usage, such as the semantic distinctions of shall and will, or may and can, or the requirement of English idiom that one "agree to" a proposal and "agree with" a person, are adhered to by speakers of formal English. Formal English is more economical and restrained than the language of the other two levels. "Ask not what your country can do for you, but what you can do for your country"[6] is an illustration of formal English.

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[5] Colloquial (L. com 'with' and loqui 'to talk') is used in this paper to mean 'conversational'; this is the sense of the word as it is used in most usage handbooks.

[6] John F. Kennedy, Inaugural Address, 1960.

Because it is the social dialect of prestige, speakers who are desirous either to reach or affect higher social status usually find it necessary to gain some control of formal English. Many people learn to handle formal English from formal education, while others learn this social dialect by imitating speakers who use formal English. However, there are people who attempt to use formal speech without grasping the flavor of the prestige dialect; the resulting usage is usually so inappropriate and ineffective that it does not communicate. Redundancy and verbosity (not precision, economy, and restraint) characterize this speech; it is known as hyper-urbanism. An illustration of hyper-urbanism is this announcement made by a principal to his student body: "Because of inclement weather the athletic events scheduled for September 8 will be discontinued." He meant, of course, that there would be no football practice that afternoon because of rain; his announcement would have been much clearer if he had not attempted to make it sound "high-flown."

In addition to his geographic and social dialects, a speaker has functional varieties, or styles, of language with which he may suit his speech to different situations and audiences. Francis has identified five styles of language, which he has divided into two groups: discursive and non-discursive. Three styles are discursive, i.e., conversational; these are called consultative, casual, and intimate. Two styles, because they do not allow audience interruption, are non-discursive; these are known as frozen and formal.[7]

The consultative, used for opening conversation with strangers or for serious discussions in small groups, is the central style. This is inoffensive because it is neither too intimate nor too formal; speakers use this style to "feel out" new people or situations. For example, in Shakespeare's Richard III when Catesby, as part of a plot to put Richard on the throne, attempts to discover whether Hastings will be a party to their plot or will remain loyal to the rightful heir, he uses the consultative to address Hastings:

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[7] Francis, _op_. _cit_., pp. 253-261.

> It is a reeling world indeed, my lord,
> And I believe 'twill never stand upright
> Till Richard wear the garland of the realm
> (Act III, Scene ii).

A somewhat different situation in which the consultative is used may be illustrated by the following:

> Ralph Burroughs settled himself into the seat beside a well dressed man, apparently a businessman like himself. As he tilted the seat slightly back he remarked to the stranger, "I'm tired. I went to the polls at seven this morning to vote before I left home."
>
> "So did I," responded the stranger.
>
> Burroughs continued, "I wanted to be sure my vote was counted for Alfred Livingston. He's my man for governor."
>
> "I wanted mine counted, too," the stranger replied, but Burroughs sensed a tenseness in his voice.
>
> "Of course, Robert Inge has a good platform, too. I guess we'll just have to wait for the results."

The casual style is more informal than the consultative; it is the style appropriate to easy conversation among friends. Slang, jargon, and profanity may be introduced into the casual style. Expressions such as nice, cute, thingamajig, you know, and as a matter of fact interlace conversation in the casual style. The American "local color" writers were quite adept at presenting the casual style of speech. An example of casual style follows:

> There's no way of telling what a fellow will do when he gets excited. I remember the time Bill Archer's house burned. The thing was almost gone when he waked up, but he grabbed something to save. When he got outside and looked at what he had, there was an empty suitcase in one hand and a pitcher of milk in the other. "Why in tarnation--," he exclaimed in disgust. "I'm not going nowhere and I'm not hungry!"

The intimate style of speech is used by people in very close relationships. Much of communication within the intimate style is carried on by means other than linguistic, such as a raised eyebrow or a shrug of the shoulder. In the intimate style utterances are usually short and words may have special meanings derived from shared experiences. Intonation is usually the chief means of indicating intimacy and shared experiences and ideas.

The other two styles, i.e. formal and frozen, are non-discursive. The formal style, as distinct from formal social dialect, is the style of speech used for expository discourse. The speaker is concerned with the presentation of an idea in precise language and in a logical order which serves his purpose.

The last functional variety, or frozen style, is primarily the style of literature.

> A foolish consistency is the hobgoblin of little minds, adored by little statesmen, philosophers, and divines.[8]

When a speaker is engaged in conversation he easily changes his styles as often as situations and audiences change. For example, in a group situation a speaker may use different styles when answering different members of the group; he may also use different styles for different subjects of conversation, as may be recognized by anyone who has overheard two women move from a discussion of "the world situation" to a discussion of their children's activities.

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[8] Ralph Waldo Emerson, "Self-Reliance," in American Poetry and Prose, ed. Norman Foerster and Robert Falk. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1960, p. 333.

However, because of the formal nature of situations which require a speaker to use a non-discursive style, this style-to-style movement does not usually occur. The possibility of change of style is eliminated by the speaker's preplanning his speech and by his separation from audience reply.

A speaker learns much about certain areas of usage through the socializing process; by early teens the child can usually handle the three conversational styles, as well as the geographic and social dialects of his environment. However, to be linguistically competent, a speaker must be able to use appropriately and with propriety four styles and, depending upon his background, two or three social dialects. In other words, a competent speaker must use the language flexibly, so that his usage can be suited to all situations and audiences. Because relatively few speakers learn formal speech natively or have sufficient opportunity at home to acquire skill in handling non-discursive styles, these are the alternatives which the educational system concentrated on adding to his usage. Nevertheless, simply teaching the kind of usage which is acceptable in "polite society" is not enough; the goal of teaching usage should be that of helping the child to develop flexibility in his language usage which is based on a sense of appropriateness. Correct usage is, after all, appropriate usage, just as correct dress is appropriate dress It is just as incorrect to use vulgate English when addressing a seminar group as to wear shorts and sneakers to the opera; likewise, a boy using formal speech in the midst of playing a football game is choosing a form of speech as inappropriate as wearing his Sunday suit in the same game.

DIALECT

1. The meaning of the term dialect.

The term dialect refers to the speech peculiar to a particular group of people who, through a period of time, have been in constant communication with each other and have developed language habits common among themselves. Such a group is called a speech community. Any group (a family group, a boys club, a professional group, etc.) may become a speech community as members of that group use certain words which have special meaning for themselves.

Larger speech communities, the people who live in certain geographic areas and who communicate more frequently with others within their own area than with people from other areas, are said to have regional dialects. Scientific study of the speech in a geographic area is called dialect geography, linguistic geography, or area linguistics. The person who makes such a study is called a dialect geographer, a linguistic geographer, or a dialectologist.

When linguistic geographers use the term dialect they are not referring to substandard speech. They mean a variety of speech found in a certain region which differs to some extent in pronunciation, in vocabulary and/or in grammar from speech in other regions.

2. Reasons for differences among dialects within the United States.

The early settlers in what was to become the United States continued to speak the varying dialects of their home towns or villages in the British Isles. Thus, at the very beginning, varied speech habits existed in America. During Colonial days the settlements located along the Atlantic were at great distances from each other. Little communication occurred between the people of one colony and those of another. Dialect differences continued.

Before the middle of the eighteenth century there was little movement inland. Settlers did not cross the Blue Ridge Mountains to any extent until the great migration of the Ulster Scots. These Scots, crossing the mountains in Pennsylvania, traveled westward until they reached French outposts, then they turned southwestward. Later they divided, some going westward to the Ohio River, some continuing southwestward to the Tennessee River Valley. A third group recrossed the Blue Ridge and continued along the eastern foothills into the Piedmont sections of the Carolinas and Georgia. This new group had a different dialect from the settlers along the coast. However, as the Scots' communities grew, some of them began to contact people of the Coastal area and began to adopt words from the cities of the area, Richmond, Charleston, and Savannah. Thus the dialect of the Southern Midland group had been influenced by the speech of the southeast tidewater area.

The physical geography of a country influences dialect distribution. Marshes, deserts, and mountain ranges in blocking travel also block the spread of speech habits, while mountain passes and rivers become travel routes and, thus, provide opportunities for the spread and overlapping of dialects. The western movement in American history followed favorable geographic routes. This resulted in the spread of dialects from Pennsylvania to Ohio, from New York to Michigan, from the Midland areas up the Mississippi to northern lands. Most of the western frontier settlers came from the inland North and the South Midland regions; thus the speech of those two areas was carried to the new settlements and interfused as dialect groups settled down together.

Few people from eastern New England, the North Midland area, or the South proper migrated to the west. New England held her population because of her flourishing sea trade. For the most part, people of the South, traditionally plantation people with such crops as rice, cotton, and tobacco and with slavery as a source of labor, remained in the South. Much of the new territory was closed to slavery, and little of the land was suited to plantation crops. Occasionally a southern planter moved to the new lands in the Gulf area, into the black belt of Alabama, or into the bluegrass region of Kentucky. Although comparatively few people from the South and from New England migrated west, their dialects had some influence on the speech of settlers there. The few migrants from the Old South, owners of new plantations, were influential and their speech was emulated in the areas in which they settled. At the same time, in many other areas of the Middle West, local schools were being modeled after the New England Academy and New England school teachers were brought in. Thus, New England dialect, often encouraged by the teachers, became "proper talk" for many of the educated Middle Westerners.

Soon after the frontier settlements in the Middle West were made by migrations from older states, there came an influx of foreigners to these new lands. At first most of these settlers were German, later Scandinavians came, and still later Slavs and Finns. Each group brought its own language.

The extension of migration from the Great Plains into the Rocky Mountain area resulted in the crossing of Yankee and South Midland groups. When these English-speaking settlers arrived in the Rocky

Mountain area they found a Southwestern Spanish culture, partly Spanish American and partly Hispanicized Indian, with its own distinctive speech.

Settlements in the Pacific Coastal area were made by emigrants from other states as the Oregon Trail was opened and as gold was found in California. Chinese, Filipinos, and Armenians imigrated early to California and brought their own languages.

The non-English languages having the most lasting effects in regions of the United States are the German in Pennsylvania (the Pennsylvania Dutch), French in Louisiana, and the African Languages brought by slaves to the South Carolina and Georgia coastal area. Pennsylvania German, the oldest surviving foreign language colony, is now a dying language. However, it has contributed many items of vocabulary to American English.

French settlements in North America are as old as the English settlements, but French, too, is a dying language in this country. French is found only in a few isolated Missouri villages along the Mississippi and in southwestern Louisiana. In Louisiana it survives only as a folk dialect. As transportation, education, and industrial employment have been provided for this group of people they have become literate in English rather than in French.

Dialect distribution in the United States has resulted also from changes within a geographic area, as well as from migrations from one geographic area to another. The United States, growing in population and wealthy in resources, has seen sociological change. Industrial centers have developed. The trend from farm to town for the working class and the growing trend in the prestige group's moving from urban to suburban areas is causing a current shifting of dialect groups.

With the current trend of increasing the years of schooling for

American young people, extending public education down to pre-kindergarten level and upward through junior college level, there is a likelihood that education will erase even more of the variations in dialects. Mass communications media, too, are making a difference. Speech models not typical of a speech community are brought into it via radio and television.

3. Kinds of Dialectal Differences

Linguistics geography reveals three kinds of dialectal differences: differences in pronunciation, differences in vocabulary, and differences in grammar.

Differences in pronunciation are of two types, systematic and individaul. A systematic difference is one that affects in a common way a whole group of words. An example is this: the sound of r is consistently lost except before vowels in eastern New England speech. In the same region the sound of r is often added between two vowel sounds, as in "the idear of it." This speech variation is found in the South and in New York city also. Individual differences affect only a single word or a group of closely related words. The verb grease and the adjective greasy are examples. Southerners pronounce these with a z sound, while Northerners use the s sound.

Differences in vocabulary are the easiest to identify. The groups of words below are examples of the many names of the same thing, as they are used in different regions of the United States:

(1) Creek, stream, brook, run, branch, fork, prong, gulf, binnekill, binacle, rivulet, riverlet, gutter, kill, bayou, burn

(2) seesaw, teetering-board, teeter-totter, dandle, tilt,

tilts, ridy-horse, hicky-horse, teeter horse, see-horse, tiltams

(3) peanuts, ground peas, goobers, grubies, pinders, ground nuts, grounuts, ground almonds.

Differences in grammar are found. Most Northern speakers use the word dove as the past tense of dive, while most Southerners use the word dived. "Two miles is all the farther I can go" is used in some Atlantic Seaboard regions and in the North Central States of Wisconsin, Michigan, Illinois, Indiana, Kentucky, and Ohio. New Englanders and many Southerners use "as far as."

4. Dialect areas in the United States

Linguistic geographers identify and chart dialect areas as they are studied. The reported studies include Northern, Midland, and Southern, with Midland being divided into North Midland and South Midland. Other dialect areas, less clearly set off, have been found in the Northern Plains, the San Francisco Bay area, and in parts of the Rockies. The projects of the Linguistic Atlas of the United States and Canada have resulted in a fairly detailed study of about two thirds of the United States.

5. Dialect in Literature

Dialect has been used in literature for a long time. It was used in ancient Greece. Chaucer and Shakespeare used it in England as a way to say subtle things about their characters and to identify a character as belonging to a certain social class or to a certain geographic area. Writers in the United States (Mark Twain, Joel Chandler Harris, and James Russell Lowell, for example) have used dialect to bring out contrasts among characters or to add color.

There are problems in writing in dialect. Writing can only suggest the variety and complexity of oral communications. The writer of dialect seeks the best way to represent the differences which will make a character distinctive. Joel Chandler Harris, in writing the Uncle Remus stories, used phonetic devices to portray the Negro dialect. He used *d* for *th* in *the*, *that*, *them*, and *whether*, and *f* for *th* in words like *mouth* and *tooth*. He wrote *before* as *befo'*, *surely* as *sholy*, and *poor* as *po'*. He invented terminology for Uncle Remus, words like *rekemember* and phrases such as "es ca'm es a dead pig in de sunshine."

A common kind of imitation speech, known as "eye dialect," is found in comics and other inaccurate representations of American English dialects. This is the respelling of ordinary words to suggest a non-standard pronunciation. This is a false representation, however, because spelling such words as *says*, *women* and *was* as *sez*, *wimmin* and *wuz* is recording the actual sounds of these words as they are pronounced in standard English.

Dialect writing involves another problem. Each writer himself speaks some regional dialect, and those characters of his who speak his own dialect will not be portrayed as varying in their speech. For example, a Southern writer will spell his own pronunciation of *I* and *my* with these standard spellings, but a Northern or Midland writer portraying a Southerner's dialect would likely spell these words as *ah* and *mah*.

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ABSTRACT

ECSC 4. Book Four, A Curriculum in Written Composition, 4-6, identifies concepts and skills and presents illustrative learning experiences designed to develop those concepts and skills needed for effective writing in grades four through six. Grade level designations are given more to indicate sequence than to assign a body of material to any particular group of children. Background language experiences of individuals or groups of children and their day-to-day verbal needs are the determining factors for the selections of any component of the materials.